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Text Materials for Terminal Education

EDITORIAL

THE American Association of Junior Colleges at its annual meeting in 1947 passed a resolution stating "that each junior college offering terminal curriculums should assume responsibility for contributing to the development of the needed materials of instruction, and administrators should stimulate and encourage qualified staff members to prepare and publish such materials in order that they may be made generally available." This resolution was intended as a challenge to junior-college instructors and administrators to contribute to the much-needed development of junior-college terminal education by helping to remove a serious deficiency. Too often junior colleges have found it necessary to improvise in the classroom from textbooks constructed to serve either high-school or senior-college purposes. Mention of this difficulty has

been made by several authorities in recent months, and it is substantiated in a report by the National Advisory Committee on *Vocational Education of College Grade*, published by the United States Office of Education (Bulletin No. 6, 1946), which points out that traditional college textbooks are not adequate for terminal programs.

One of the significant attributes of the junior college has been its ability, unhampered by tradition and "sacred cows," to analyze its function in the community in which it operates. Yet, by the very fact that it does depart from the traditional in its programs organized on a functional basis, it is faced with the responsibility of preparing appropriate text materials.

The differences between junior-college terminal education and the more traditional senior-college program may be many, but two seem to stand out in importance: (1) length of program and (2) method of presentation. Junior-college terminal programs, in the

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majority of instances, are limited to two years beyond Grade XII. In this period the student must acquire breadth of understanding and appreciation plus vocational specialization. This feature affects the materials of instruction in that it requires selection, condensation, and interpretation of much of the material ordinarily included in a four-year, senior-college sequence.

The method of presentation is influenced by the present trend of emphasis in terminal programs. More attention is being given to the development of an understanding and appreciation of basic principles, and training is being provided in only the minimum skills required by entry positions in industry. Junior colleges seek to prepare for that category of jobs, apart from the skilled occupations, on the one hand, and the professional research positions, on the other. In the technical field, this classification includes, in part, plant supervisors; assistants in production control, cost control, quality control, work simplification, industrial safety, traffic; junior engineers, design draftsmen, customer or field engineers, equipment engineers, plant analysts, laboratory assistants; and others within a similar category. The nature of these positions requires greater breadth of preparation than that needed for the skilled occupations, but, in con-

trast with research engineering, preparation for the "entry jobs" can be given in two-year terminal programs.

If such programs and instructional materials are appropriately planned, the "breadth" and "depth" of the subject matter must be woven together. This integration may often be best accomplished through the liberal use of illustrations and applications. Each principle should be justified through applications appropriate to the type and the level of work that junior-college students may reasonably be expected to encounter. Technical-terminal students, by their interests, are vocationally minded. With these students, therefore, an essential approach to learning is through vocational application rather than through reliance on the abstract.

When a junior college faces the necessity for preparing its materials of instruction, the job may seem to be insurmountable. For one thing, administrators state that they are unable to obtain enough instructors who are capable of either improvising or preparing their own materials. The only answer, therefore, seems to be through a national, co-operative effort on the part of all junior colleges which are engaged in terminal programs. Through the publication of text materials, colleges may share developments.

LAWRENCE L. BETHEL

Analysis of Junior-College Growth

SHIRLEY SANDERS

TOTAL enrolment in junior colleges climbed sharply upward in the first postwar year, 1945-46, after the plunge it took in 1943-44 and 1944-45 as a result of the eighteen-year-old draft, and in 1946-47 the enrolment reached its peak. The "Junior College Directory, 1948," presented in the January number of the *Junior College Journal*, shows that total enrolment increased from 294,475 students as reported for 1945-46 to 455,048 as reported for 1946-47.

The above enrolment figures cover *last year*, not the current year, 1947-48. This should be strongly emphasized.

The number of junior colleges reported this year is 663, as compared with 648 in the Directory for the previous year, a net increase of 15. This brings the number of junior colleges in operation to an all-time high, the previous peak being the 648 for last year.

The number of junior colleges in the country and the enrolments re-

ported in them, as shown by the directories for the past twenty-one years, have been as follows:

Year	Number	Enrol- ment	Percentage Increase
1928	408	50,529
1929	405	54,438	7.7
1930	429	67,627	24.2
1931	436	74,088	9.6
1932	469	97,631	31.8
1933	493	96,555	- 1.1
1934	514	103,592	7.2
1935	521	107,807	4.1
1936	518	122,311	13.5
1937	528	129,106	5.6
1938	553	136,623	5.8
1939	556	155,588	13.9
1940	575	196,710	26.4
1941	610	236,162	20.1
1942	627	267,406	13.2
1943	624	314,349	17.6
1944	586	325,151	3.4
1945	584	249,788	-23.2
1946	591	251,290	0.6
1947	648	294,475	17.2
1948	663	455,048	54.5

Again it should be emphasized that the enrolments given are for the previous *completed* academic year; that is, the enrolment reported in the 1948 Directory is for the college year 1946-47.

In the past decade, in spite of the temporary setback during the war, there has been an increase of 20 per cent in the number of junior colleges reported and an overwhelming increase of 233 per cent in their enrolment.

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The figures tabulated above give enrolments on approximately a comparable basis for students on the college level. They include 39,262 students who are enrolled in the junior colleges or lower divisions of 34 universities and senior colleges which are listed in the 1948 Directory. On the other hand, enrolments in the "lower divisions," or last two high-school years, of 38 four-year junior colleges are not included in these total figures. This additional enrolment amounts to 11,659.

Number of junior colleges and enrolments by regions follow:

Region	Number	Enrolment
New England	49	19,834
Middle States	80	44,014
North Central	219	106,644
Southern	202	89,911
Northwest	26	19,303
Western (California)	75	171,865

The largest percentage growth in enrolment between 1945-46 and 1946-47 occurred in the Middle States, where the number of students increased by 103 per cent.

The largest number of institutions is still found in California with 75, followed by Texas with 63. There are 23 states with 10 or more junior colleges each.

Public and Private Colleges

Of the entire group of 663 junior colleges, 326 (49 per cent) are publicly controlled institutions, while 337 (51 per cent) are under private

control. Corresponding figures for last year were 315 publicly and 333 privately controlled. The publicly controlled institutions, however, have much the greater proportion of the enrolment. No less than 75 per cent. (last year 73 per cent), or 339,251 students, are found in the publicly controlled junior colleges, as compared with 115,797 in the privately controlled institutions.

Increased enrolments are found in the publicly controlled junior colleges in 46 states, and decreased enrolments in one state. The publicly controlled institutions show a net increase of 122,926 students, or 57 per cent, as compared with an increase last year of 12 per cent. The largest increase in public junior college enrolment occurred in California, with a gain of 52,597. California continues to have the largest public enrolment of any state. Texas is second and New York third.

Increased enrolments are found in the privately controlled junior colleges in 42 states, and decreased enrolments in 5 states, the net increase being 37,647 students, or 48 per cent, compared with an increase of 33 per cent in 1945-46. Texas has the largest enrolment in the junior colleges which are privately controlled.

Institutional Changes

The names of 25 institutions which appeared in the 1947 Di-

rectory are omitted in the 1948 Directory. Ten of these have become senior colleges; three have been consolidated with, or replaced by, other junior colleges; eight have closed the junior-college department or otherwise changed their form of organization; the remaining four were dropped for other reasons.

The 1948 Directory contains the names of 39 junior colleges which did not appear in the previous year. Twenty-four of these are publicly controlled junior colleges, and 15 are privately controlled ones. Thirty of these 39 began junior-college work for the first time this year. Two are junior colleges which closed temporarily during the war and have reopened this year. The remaining seven have been in existence for one or more years but have not been listed previously. The names of the 30 new institutions definitely reported as beginning junior-college work in 1946-47 follow. Eighteen of these are publicly controlled institutions; 12 are privately controlled.

Clarence W. Pierce Junior College, California
 El Camino College, California
 Monterey Peninsula College, California
 Palo Verde Junior College, California
 Palos Verdes College, California
 Denver Junior College of University of Denver, Colorado
 Chipola Junior College, Florida
 Riddle Inter-American College, Florida
 St. Augustine Junior College, Florida
 Truett-McConnell Junior College, Georgia
 Belleville Township Junior College, Illinois
 Moline Community College, Illinois

Peoria Junior College, Illinois
 Perry Junior College, Iowa
 Baltimore City Junior College, Maryland
 Holyoke Junior College, Massachusetts
 Berkshire Hills Junior College, Massachusetts
 New England College, New Hampshire
 Glassboro Junior College for Veterans, New Jersey
 Trenton Junior College, New Jersey
 New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, Binghamton
 New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, Brooklyn
 New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, White Plains
 Champlain College, New York
 Mohawk College, New York
 Sampson College, New York
 Charlotte College Center, North Carolina
 Laredo Junior College, Texas
 Panola County Junior College, Texas
 Extension Division of University of Wisconsin, Marinette

Type of Institution

The junior college prevailingly is a coeducational institution, 516 (78 per cent) of this type being reported. Five institutions for men are found in the publicly controlled group, all the others being coeducational. In the privately controlled group, 44 are for men, 98 for women, and 195 coeducational.

Of the publicly controlled institutions, one is federally controlled (Canal Zone), 66 are state controlled, 78 are in independently organized junior-college districts, and the remaining 181 are local or municipal institutions controlled by the local public school boards.

Of the privately controlled group, 183 (54 per cent) are reported as under denominational auspices, the Catholics leading with 40 institu-

tions, followed by Methodists, 38; Baptists, 36; Lutherans, 17; Presbyterians, 16; and 22 other denominations with one to four each, 36.

Of the privately controlled institutions not under denominational auspices, 115 are operated on a non-profit basis with control vested in a board of trustees, while 39 are classified as proprietary.

Twenty-three of the institutions listed (3.5 per cent) are Negro junior colleges. All but six of these are privately controlled institutions. In addition, there is one junior college for Indian students.

Size of Colleges

The size of the 663 junior colleges for which enrolments are reported in the 1948 Directory may be summarized as follows:

Enrolment	Number of Colleges		
	Total	Public	Private
1- 49 ..	45	13	32
50- 99 ..	79	25	54
100- 199 ..	143	51	92
200- 299 ..	91	41	50
300- 399 ..	71	35	36
400- 499 ..	34	18	16
500- 599 ..	35	20	15
600- 699 ..	20	12	8
700- 799 ..	15	9	6
800- 899 ..	13	12	1
900- 999 ..	12	9	3
1,000-1,999 ..	54	38	16
2,000-2,999 ..	23	16	7
3,000-3,999 ..	9	9	0
4,000-4,999 ..	6	5	1
5,000-5,999 ..	2	2	0
6,000-6,999 ..	3	3	0
7,000-7,999 ..	5	5	0
8,000-8,999 ..	1	1	0
Over 9,000 ..	2	2	0
Total ...	663	326	337

While the junior college is still a comparatively small institution in many parts of the country, too small for the greatest educational efficiency in many cases, yet it has grown steadily except in wartime. Sixty-nine per cent of those with less than 100 students are privately controlled. It is significant that there are 305 institutions which have enrolments of 300 or greater; that 105 exceed 1,000; that 51 exceed 2,000; and 13 exceed 5,000.

Twenty-one California public junior colleges report enrolments of special students in excess of 1,000 each. The total California enrolment of special students is 100,045 as compared with 71,820 regular students.

The striking increase in the number of special students is a phenomenon of the past ten years, and it reflects the increasing attention being given by junior colleges to their opportunities for service in the field of adult education. For each of the five years from 1933 to 1937 the specials comprised less than 15 per cent of the total enrolment. Beginning in 1938, however, there was a steady increase, reaching a peak during the war years, when the normal enrolment of special students was augmented by thousands taking E.S.M.W.T., cadet nurse, and other special war courses. Since the cessation of these courses there has naturally been some leveling-off, but the numbers of special students

remain very large. Data for the past eleven years are as follows:

Year	Total	Special	Percent- age Special
1938	136,623	20,750	15.2
1939	155,588	33,204	21.3
1940	196,710	52,849	26.9
1941	236,162	73,371	31.1
1942	267,406	102,369	38.3
1943	314,349	158,425	50.4
1944	325,151	193,360	59.5
1945	249,788	161,791	64.8
1946	251,290	156,174	62.1
1947	294,475	140,099	47.6
1948	455,048	176,837	38.9

The largest enrolment of regular students is found in the Junior College of the University of Houston, with 6,514.

Average enrolments for the past nine years and also for the years 1929-30 and 1935-36 follow:

Year	Average for:		
	All Colleges	Public	Private
1929-30	162	240	115
1935-36	255	406	136
1938-39	349	556	181
1939-40	397	652	202
1940-41	429	707	203
1941-42	514	872	223
1942-43	555	998	201
1943-44	438	733	189
1944-45	434	723	188
1945-46	454	687	235
1946-47	686	1,040	343

This analysis indicates that the publicly controlled institutions have made a marked increase in average size in the past decade. The 1946-47 averages for all junior colleges are the largest in their history.

Enrolment by Classes

Enrolment by classes may be summarized as follows, the percentage distribution for last year being added for comparison:

Class	Number	Percentage	
		1946-47	1945-46
Freshman	210,805	46.3	40.0
Sophomore ..	67,406	14.8	12.4
Special	176,837	38.9	47.6
Total	455,048	100.0	100.0

If the special students are eliminated from consideration, 76 out of each 100 regular students were Freshmen in 1946-47, the same as in the previous year.

Number of Faculty

The Directory reports 14,131 full-time instructors and 6,804 on a part-time basis in 663 institutions, or a total of 20,935 instructors this year as compared with 17,725 last year. This is an average of 31.6 instructors per institution as compared with 27.4 last year.

If it be assumed that two part-time instructors are the equivalent of one working full-time, then there is the equivalent of 17,533 full-time instructors in these 663 junior colleges, or an average of 26.4 full-time instructors per institution, as compared with 22.6 last year.

Accreditation

Of the entire group of 663 institutions, 612, or 92 per cent, are

accredited by some accrediting agency, national, regional, or state. Only 173, however, are members of any of the five regional associations of colleges and secondary schools. A summary of such membership follows:

New England Association	10
Middle States Association	15
North Central Association	63
Southern Association	74
Northwest Association	11

California is not in the territory of any of the regional accrediting agencies, nor, of course, are the institutions in foreign countries.

Association Membership

The Directory indicates that on January 1, 1948, the American Association of Junior Colleges had 429 active and 39 provisional institutional members. Thus 71 per cent of all the junior colleges hold membership in the Association. This may be compared with 56 per cent membership in 1939 and 69 per cent last year. Of the 326 public junior colleges, 224 (69 per cent) are members; of the 337 private junior colleges, 244 (72 per cent) are members.

Eight states and the Canal Zone have records of 100 per cent membership in the Association, as follows: Colorado, 8; West Virginia, 4; Idaho, 3; Vermont, 3; Arizona, 2; Louisiana, 2; Canal Zone, 1; Delaware, 1; and New Mexico, 1. Other high membership states are Kansas

(19 out of 21), Michigan (12 out of 13), Pennsylvania (19 out of 22), and Georgia (19 out of 21).

Changes in Administrators

A comparison of the 1948 and 1947 Directories reveals a change in the administrative heads this year on the part of 77 junior colleges, or 12 per cent of the entire group, as compared with 13 per cent last year. In the publicly controlled junior colleges the change this year was 15 per cent; in the privately controlled colleges, 8 per cent.

Type of Organization

The information on "years included" is summarized as follows:

Four-year junior colleges	38
Three-year junior colleges	8
Two-year junior colleges	614
One-year junior colleges	3

The two-year organization is evidently the prevailing type (93 per cent), but there is considerable interest in the four-year type, whether in public-school systems as part of the "six-four-four" plan, or in privately controlled institutions where the last two academy or preparatory school years are included with the two common junior-college years. Last year 40 four-year institutions were reported. Of the four-year institutions this year, 20 are publicly controlled, 18 privately controlled. Of the public group, 5 are state, 7 are district, and 8 are

local or municipal junior colleges. In a fully functioning four-year unit it would be expected that the enrolment in the first two years would be substantially greater than in the upper two years. In only 4 of the publicly controlled and in only 2 of the privately controlled institutions, however, was the "lower-di-

vision" enrolment greater than the "upper-division" enrolment. The total upper-division enrolment in the publicly controlled four-year institutions was 30,265; lower division, 10,257. In the privately controlled institutions the figures were: upper-division, 8,198; lower-division, 8,074.

The Marriage of Thought and Action

ORDWAY TEAD

THIS occasion is a symbol that we are again, as the phrase is, "doing business at the old stand" on this lovely hilltop. And the question of the hour is: What is the business we are here to do? Is it a business which will make each student confident that she amounts to something, that her individual life and contribution are important to herself, to the college, and to society?

Potentialities of the Individual

This reality of the importance of the individual is an urgent issue today for every one of us because of the size, the complexity, and the pressure of the world forces which shape our lives whether we will or not. Are we, as persons, able to in-

fluence, as well as to be influenced by, the tremendous trends which the close of the war presents in such overwhelming impact? Can we individually become creative forces and not just passive victims of bewilderment and frustration? Does it make any difference to us or to the world that we exert the effort to be better educated?

I have a strong feeling that here is the deepest issue of our day: How can each individual know that he amounts to something?

To celebrate the end of the war, a mammoth festival was held in the stadium at Los Angeles. One hundred thousand persons were packed in to see an evening of pageantry, airplane demonstrations, army tank maneuvers, and the like. It all seemed to suggest the helplessness of the individual against these mighty instruments of war. Then suddenly there was a change of pace. A voice at the loud-speaker began to talk in a quiet, serious way:

"Perhaps you sometimes say to yourself, 'My job isn't important because it's such a little job.' But you are wrong. The most obscure person can be a very important per-

ORDWAY TEAD, chairman of the Board of Higher Education of New York City, delivered this paper as the convocation address at Briarcliff Junior College, New York, on September 21, 1947. Because it contains many suggestions for teachers and administrators in their relationships with students, the Junior College Journal is pleased to have the opportunity to present it to our readers.

son. Anyone here who wants to exert a far-reaching power may do so. Let me show you what I mean."

The searchlights were suddenly switched off. The arena was unexpectedly plunged into complete darkness. Then the speaker struck a match. In the blackness the tiny flame could be seen by all.

"Now," he said, "you can easily see the importance of one little light. But suppose we all strike a light!"

And they did. From all over the stadium came the scratching of matches, until nearly one hundred thousand points of light destroyed the darkness with their combined illumination. The audience gasped with surprise at the effect which they had produced by acting in concert.

Then the searchlights were turned on. The object-lesson was over, and everyone present had received a vivid illustration of the power of one individual, especially when he acts in co-operation with all the rest.

There has recently been published a book which has caused a wide stir in the world of scholars and is now a best-seller. It is *A Study of History* by an English historian, Arnold Toynbee, a study of how the forces of civilization rise and fall in the long human scene. As to this issue of the vital place of the individual in society, Toynbee's conclusions are clear, definite,

and positive. I quote two sentences of his central theme:

It is through the inward development of personality that individual human beings are able to perform those creative acts, in the outward field of action, that cause the growth of human societies.¹

The individual energies of all the human beings who constitute the so-called "members" of a society are the vital forces whose operation works out the history of that society, including [the duration of] its time-span.²

Further to the same effect, in an article entitled "Does History Always Repeat Itself?" in the *New York Times* of September 21, 1947, Professor Toynbee makes his position even more clear:

There is nothing to prevent our Western civilization from following historical precedent, if it chooses, by committing social suicide. But we are not doomed to make history repeat itself; it is open to us, through our own efforts, to give history, in our case, some new and unprecedented turn. As human beings, we are endowed with the freedom of choice, and we cannot shuffle off our responsibility upon the shoulders of God or nature. We must shoulder it ourselves. It is up to us.

Again, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford, Sir Richard Livingstone, said to like effect recently:

¹ Arnold J. Toynbee, *A Study of History*, p. 212. New York: Oxford University Press, 1946.

² *Ibid.*, p. 248.

There are no [barbarian] tribes to destroy modern civilization from outside. The barbarians are ourselves. . . . It is not our material civilization that is defective; it is ourselves.³

The Place of Education

All of this suggests to me that we are entitled to think about ourselves and about our education with some confidence that we do count and that the task of self-education is not only desirable but is *crucial* to the very survival of our kind of civilization.

That brings us to the practical question of how we go about assuring that our education does truly equip us to be *important* and *influential*. I have five key points to suggest in answer to this question:

We need a clear *purpose* in college.
We need a sound *plan* of personal action.

We need to strengthen our self-confidence.

We need to get a sense of *mastery* on some job.

We need to be conscious of our *community* membership.

Purpose, plan, confidence, mastery, community—I want to speak briefly about each of these.

Purpose in College

First, we should have a clear purpose in being in college. Your individual purposes or reasons are varied, and you may be a little

³ Richard Livingstone, *Some Tasks for Education*, p. 15. New York: Oxford University Press, 1946.

vague about them. It may even be a case of, "Mother or Daddy knows best" about your purpose in coming to college. In short, some of you may at this moment be in a fog. But let me comfort you with the thought that a fog can be viewed in two ways—from inside and from outside. At Highland Light on Cape Cod there is a commanding bluff looking out over the sea. I have stood on it in the bright sunshine and looked down on a low-lying bank of fog in which fishing boats were hidden. Inside the fog the fishermen were blinded and soaked in wet clouds. Outside the fog we stood high and dry in the sunlight. Fogs, I can assure you, do blow away, and they do burn off.

This is, no doubt, a foggy hour for a lot of young people. At this very moment two and a half million of you all over the country are starting a college year. To dispel this fog about purpose, former President Woodrow Wilson of Princeton University once told his students this:

You are not here merely to prepare to make a living. You are here to enable the world to live more amply, with a greater vision, with a finer spirit of hope and achievement. You are here to enrich the world, and you impoverish yourselves if you forget your errand.

All who are today entering college are there to help enrich the world. But you do that, of course, as you have riches to offer—riches

of personal power, ability, and resource to put at the disposal of the world. And the influence of the individual for good, as my title suggests, comes about largely by the marriage of thought and action. A great and wise man, Alfred North Whitehead, put it well:

The aim of education is the marriage of thought and action—that action should be controlled by thought and that thought should issue in action. And beyond both there is the sense for what is worthy in thought and worthy in action.⁴

What, then, are some of the areas of our conduct which require worthy thought to bring worthy action? Once these areas are identified, we shall know something more definite about why we are here and what we have to do to carry out our true purpose.

In order to live together, we have, first, to *communicate*—to be understood in what we say and to be understanding of what we read and listen to. We have to have command of clear utterance, for only as we know what we mean are we able to tell it to others. Communication by speech, writing, and any other means is a fine art, essential to social living. Being communicated to by books and teachers and speakers is equally an art of critical and creative acceptance. And both arts have to be learned.

⁴ Alfred North Whitehead, *Essays in Science and Philosophy*, p. 172. New York: Philosophical Library, 1947.

A second area of conduct is in the grasp and the practice of democracy. We talk better democracy in America than we perform. Our minority-race problems, our struggles of employers and employees, our efforts to deal understandingly with other nations—these are only a few of the ways in which the reality and the sincerity of our democratic faith are being severely tested. We have, as students of our own society, to know what we mean by this democratic faith, to know why it is a valid faith, to discover how to realize it more fully through our own efforts and to desire eagerly to realize it.

We have, third, to know how to carry on human relations in our personal and group dealings so that they will be happy and productive. We have to be not only democratic but friendly and loving. And we know today that improved personal relationships can come about by giving thought and study to the matter. This is true whether we are thinking about handling children, the relation of husband and wife, the relation of leaders to followers, the cultivation of friendships, and all the rest.

We have, also, to know how the processes of orderly thought go on in dealing with all kinds of problems. Reasoning and reflection, scientific methods of induction and deduction—these can be mastered, indeed have to be mastered, if thought is to be useful as we strive

to think about difficulties and choices presented to us.

We have, again, to have some grasp of the forces playing on our lives—the political, economic, social, and religious institutions and influences in which our living is immersed. And we can only truly grasp these facts as we see them in historic perspective and know why and how we come to be as we are in an organized society. To be guilty of saying that we hate the study of history is like saying that we hate to remember that we had any parents and are indifferent to what kind of people there are. It was a wise man who said, "Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it."

Also, if life is to have some graciousness, we cannot ignore a coming to grips with the great artistic insights and creations of mankind. To be ignorant of them or insensitive to them is to lead a bleak, barren, and spiritless existence. To learn to appreciate wisely is a major assignment of our education. And that appreciative power has to extend to a proper valuation of the worthiness of thought and action which I mentioned earlier.

We have, finally, to know something of the vocations of the world—know what they are, what abilities they require, what our personal talents and interests are, how we can find our niche in the world of work. Only as individuals possess some skill for use in home and mar-

ket place, do they carry their own weight in life, are they able in self-respect to pay their own way.

These, then, are some of the areas of conduct which it is the purpose of the college to help enrich. Our purpose here is to improve our capacity for communication, for being democratic, for carrying on loving human relations, for straight thinking, for understanding of economic and social forces, for wiser aesthetic appreciation, and for intelligent vocational choices. To gain new stature in these areas is the reason that we are here. These define the purpose of the college. And as we get knowledge about these matters and reflect upon its meaning, we are gaining ability to wed thought to action.

Plan for Personal Action.

As to my second point—the need for having a sound plan of personal action to help realize our purposes—this involves the personal choice of courses, your decision on what extra-curriculum activities to enter, your discovery of special talents which you should develop intensively. If you do not yet have a fairly clear plan in mind, do not be alarmed; but, on the other hand, do not be complacent. A purpose cannot be carried out without a plan; and the shaping of *your* plan for yourself is your opportunity in these two years. To the extent you need guidance for such planning, the college staff is here to help.

There is a story of a man on an old Mississippi packet who fell overboard and was thrashing around in terror of drowning. The captain saw him from the pilot-house and shouted down, "Put your feet down. You can stand up where you are." The man obeyed and found that he was on a sandbank, only up to his chest in water. That is a good thing to remember about college life. Just put your feet down firmly, and you will be surprised how easy it is to take advantage of this location, which I am sure is not over your heads.

Strengthening Self-Confidence

My third point has to do with self-confidence. Each of us possesses a unique quota of abilities and capacities. These are different for each person. And each of us wants to be sure that, up to the top of his own powers, he is "doing his stuff." Self-confidence comes as we gain this assurance that our selves are unique in the gifts we bring.

Remember in this connection that it is *your* life you are leading, not your mother's or your father's. It is not necessarily your duty to realize your mother's thwarted ambitions. It is *your* gifts which we are all concerned to discover and develop, not what someone else hopes that you have or thinks you should cultivate.

It may interest you to realize, and perhaps comfort some of you a little, that around 50 A.D., nineteen

hundred years ago, a man named Plutarch wrote, as if it were yesterday:

In my time I have seen fathers in whom excessive affection had become the cause of no affection. . . . In their eagerness that their children may the sooner rank first in everything, they lay upon them unreasonable tasks, which the children find themselves unable to perform, and so come to grief; besides being depressed by their unfortunate experiences, they do not respond to the instruction which they receive.⁵

Do not be discouraged if you do not now have all the self-confidence you would like. Keep on exploring your self! Do not let any unhappy secondary-school experience with courses or people cramp your style. Today you make a fresh start with new ideas, new friendships, new participation in college affairs. It has well been said as applying to education: "There's many a horse that doesn't know it's thirsty, which when led to water, finds that it likes to drink." I hope you will deliberately try a little experimental drinking—in courses of study which until now you may not even have known the names of.

In short, do not surrender your selfhood under pressures from older folks or because of difficulty in doing interesting new things. It is that

⁵ Plutarch, "The Education of Children," *Moralia*, Vol. I. Quoted in *Three Thousand Years of Educational Wisdom*, p. 96. Edited by Robert Ulrich. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1947.

integrity of yourself and trust in your potential power which you are here to strengthen.

Attaining Mastery

My fourth point is: be sure that you achieve and register a personal success or triumph as early in the college year as you can. Self-confidence is rooted in our occasions of acknowledged mastery. Maybe you will not get all A's in the first quarter. Maybe you will never get on the dean's list. But you can write a splendid theme, or play one piece on the piano to perfection, or paint a worthy picture, or act a part in a play movingly, or conduct a morning assembly with distinction, or perform some other top accomplishment.

Learn the very gratifying taste of having done some one thing supremely well. You'll be pleased and surprised at how it whets your appetite for more. Just "getting by" is the great foe of confidence in one's powers. Having sloppy standards or no standards for yourself is the sure way to believe that you do not amount to anything—and this is simply not true. Every student here has that one talent which, as the poet said, "it is death to hide." "Humanity turns to excellence as naturally as a flower turns to the sun. . . . The first-rate is the accepted goal of education,"⁶ is the

comment of a wise educator. To gain mastery is a long way toward being first-rate. To strive for excellence is to reinforce self-confidence.

Membership in a Community

Finally, there is our membership in some community. Are you going to educate yourself in such a way as to make you unable to be on a wholesome, happy footing with your parents and in your home-community relations? Or is your education going to help you appreciate the importance of the locality from which you have come and to which most of you will return? Education, properly conducted, does not alienate us from those we love or from the community roots out of which we come. It is a snobbish distortion of education which brings any sense of superiority that we are not as other men are. Education is rather for a fuller sharing by the educated in bearing the burdens that life puts upon all alike, irrespective of income, social status, or college degrees.

Women, perhaps even more than men, are effective as they identify themselves consciously with local community relations in a personal, intimate fashion. This terrible sense that modern problems are too big to tackle can be overcome when we put down our feet where we are. It is overcome when we pitch in, with work or marriage or volunteer service, where the roots of our family

⁶ Richard Livingstone, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

are, and of our neighborhood, our friends, our fellow-workers.

This college is not an ivory tower that you are retiring into for two years. It is rather a city set upon a hill which cannot be hid. To believe that we can cut ourselves off from normal community ties is to believe that we can live without the roots and the duties which every mature adult is eager to acknowledge.

Meanwhile, you are also a member of the community of this college and of this township. And that, too, carries responsibilities of a special sort.

John Donne recalled us to an eternal truth when he said in a classic quotation:

No man is an island, entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent, a part of the main; if a clod be washed away by the sea, Europe is the less, as well as if a promontory were. . . . any man's death diminishes me, because I am involved in mankind. And therefore never send to know for whom the bell tolls; it tolls for thee.⁷

You are starting today on a glorious and joyous experience. I have long believed, with Justice Holmes, that "the rule of joy and the law of duty [are] all one." I believe you will find this true in the

⁷ John Donne, *Complete Poetry and Selected Prose*, p. 538. New York: Random House, Inc., 1936.

effort to educate yourself at this college. It will not be easy, yet it will not be too solemn. There will be duty, and there will be joy.

A Final Word

I have said that individuals as such do count tremendously, and the better the education the more they can count. It is valuable in every way for us to become as educated as possible.

The marriage of thought and action that you are here set to consummate can be brought about by five steps. You have to understand your purpose in being here, have clear plans for personal action, strengthen your self-confidence, achieve first-rate mastery in some worthy channel, and enjoy the responsibility and privilege of being always a member of a community both of students and citizens.

Emerson, in his famous essay on "Education," well sums up my keynote thought:

The beautiful nature of the world has here blended your happiness with your power. Work straight on in absolute duty, and you lend an arm and an encouragement to all the youth of the universe. Consent yourself to be an organ of your highest thought, and lo! suddenly you put all men in your debt, and are the fountain of an energy that goes pulsing on with waves of benefit to the borders of society, to the very circumference of things.

Status of Adult Education in Junior Colleges

S. V. MARTORANA

IN CONJUNCTION with the study of "Problems in Adult Education in the Junior College," which was reported in the November issue of the *Junior College Journal*, the schedule circulated by the Research Office of the American Association of Junior Colleges sought to determine the present status of adult education in junior colleges. This article summarizes the findings of the second portion of the inquiry.

Institutions Represented

As was reported in the earlier article, an inquiry blank was sent to all 648 junior colleges listed in the "Junior College Directory, 1947," published in the January, 1947, issue of the *Junior College Journal*. Replies were received from 337 junior colleges, 144 of which were offering programs of adult education. These were classified into 43 small public, 57 large public, and 44 private junior colleges. A regular student enrolment of 300 was taken as the division point between the small and the large public junior colleges.

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Among the 57 large public junior colleges that maintained adult-education programs, answers were received from eleven evening junior colleges set up and administered separately from the day junior colleges in the community. Ten of these evening junior colleges are located in California. These eleven institutions were considered separately in the analysis of returns to make sure that all significant facts in the data would be disclosed.

Location of the Junior Colleges

Answers to the inquiry were received from junior colleges maintaining adult-education programs in all states except Delaware, the District of Columbia, Maine, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont, and Wisconsin. Junior colleges offering courses in adult-education programs in Alaska and the Canal Zone also responded.

California, with a total of twenty-eight, had the most colleges reporting adult-education offerings. This state was also the highest in the number of public junior colleges reporting adult-education programs (twenty-seven) and in the number of large public

junior colleges offering such programs (twenty-two). Texas, with eleven, was second in the total number of junior colleges reporting adult-education offerings. It was also second in the number of public junior colleges with adult-education programs (nine). Nine

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tion indicates that the private junior colleges assume greatest responsibility for this service in the eastern and the southeastern states. This is to be expected in view of the slower development of the public junior college movement in those areas.

TABLE 1.—NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES OFFERING ADULT-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

<i>Classification of College</i>	<i>Number Answering Inquiry</i>	<i>Number with Adult-Education Programs</i>	<i>Percentage with Adult-Education Programs</i>
Small public	84	43	51.2
Large public:			
Excluding evening junior colleges	75	46	61.3
Evening junior colleges only	11	11	100.0
All large public	86	57	66.3
Total public	170	100	58.8
Private	167	44	26.3
All junior colleges	337	144	42.7

junior colleges in Illinois reported that they offered adult-education programs; this placed Illinois third in the total number of junior colleges offering adult-education courses. Pennsylvania led in number of private colleges maintaining adult-education offerings, with five such institutions reporting. Closely following Pennsylvania in number of private institutions offering adult-education services were Illinois, New York, and North Carolina, each with four private junior colleges reporting. Listing by states the junior colleges that reported offerings in adult educa-

Status of Adult-Education Programs

NUMBERS OF COLLEGES OFFERING PROGRAMS.—Study of Table 1, which gives the number and the percentage of junior colleges in each classification offering adult-education programs, shows that 42.7 per cent of all junior colleges replying to the inquiry provide such offerings. About half the small public junior colleges maintain adult-education programs, whereas approximately two-thirds of the large institutions of this type do so. All the separately administered eve-

ning junior colleges have adult-education offerings. When all public junior colleges are considered, the proportion offering adult-education courses is found to be nearly three-fifths. Of the private junior colleges, on the other hand, about a fourth have programs of adult education. These data may be interpreted as indicating that those

students and the enrolment of students in adult-education programs. The range and the median enrolments reported for regular students in the second semester of 1946-47 are given in Table 2.

These data indicate the relative size of junior colleges which offer adult-education courses. From the lower portion of this table it is seen

TABLE 2.—RANGE AND MEDIAN ENROLMENT OF REGULAR STUDENTS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH ADULT-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

<i>Classification of College</i>	<i>Number with Adult-Education Programs</i>	<i>Range of Enrolment of Regular Students</i>	<i>Median Enrolment of Regular Students</i>
Small public	43	33- 293	137
Large public:			
Excluding evening junior colleges	46	301-5,597	563
Evening junior colleges only	11	493-2,488	1,114
All large public	57	301-5,597	617
Total public	100	33-5,597	377
Private	44	11-1,260	208
All junior colleges	144	11-5,597	308

institutions supported at public expense feel more strongly than do private junior colleges the responsibility for maintaining offerings that meet the full scope of the educational demands of the community. Private junior colleges, on the other hand, may feel that their major responsibility is to the regular student body of their institutions.

SIZE OF THE COLLEGES.—Respondents to the inquiry were asked to give information concerning the enrolment of regular stu-

that the median enrolment of regular students in the private junior colleges is somewhat more than half that of the total number of public junior colleges. The median enrolment of regular students in private junior colleges, however, is considerably larger than that of the small public junior colleges. When the eleven evening junior colleges are removed from the large public junior college group, the median enrolment of that group decreases from 617 to 563.

The totals of the enrolments

reported by the junior colleges which provide offerings in adult education and the proportion that the enrolment in adult education is of the total enrolment, both adult and regular, are given in Table 3. The proportion that the total enrolment in adult education is of the total enrolment, both adult

enrolment is of the total enrolment in private junior colleges is 28.6, approximately three-fifths that of the public junior colleges considered as a group. For all junior colleges with adult-education programs, the total adult-education enrolment is 46.2 of the total enrolment, both adult and regular.

TABLE 3.—ENROLMENTS OF REGULAR STUDENTS AND ADULT-EDUCATION STUDENTS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH ADULT-EDUCATION PROGRAMS*

Classification of College	Enrolment of Regular Students	Enrolment of Adult-Education Students	Total Enrolment	Percentage That Adult-Education Enrolment Is of Total Enrolment
Small public	6,720	4,496	11,216	40.1
Large public:				
Excluding evening junior colleges	39,697	32,199	71,896	44.8
Evening junior colleges only	13,352	20,148	33,500	60.1
All large public	53,049	52,347	105,396	49.7
Total public	59,769	56,843	116,612	48.7
Private	12,311	4,931	17,242	28.6
All junior colleges	72,080	61,774	133,854	46.2

* Eight large public and six private junior colleges did not provide data on adult-education enrolments even though a program is maintained. These colleges were also excluded from the totals computed for regular students in order that the percentage basis would be constant.

and regular, is 40.1 per cent for the small public and 48.7 per cent for all the public junior colleges. When the evening junior colleges are excluded from the group, the total adult-education enrolment in the large public junior colleges decreases to 44.8 per cent of the total enrolment. Marked contrast in the emphasis given adult education by public and private junior colleges is evidenced by the fact that the percentage which the total adult-education

In an article published in 1945 W. C. Eells reported that for the year 1943-44 the adult enrolment was 64.8 per cent of the total enrolment in junior colleges.¹ This figure differs materially from the 46.2 per cent found in the present study. Although it is possible that there has been a decrease in the proportion of adult-education students attending junior colleges be-

¹ Walter Crosby Eells, "The Community's College," *Adult Education Journal*, IV (January, 1945), 13.

tween the years 1943-44 and 1946-47, a more plausible explanation of the difference between the findings of the two studies is the use of different definitions of adult education. To arrive at his percentage figure, Eells used the data compiled in the "Junior College Directory," which provides information on total enrolment of all

terered by the American Association of Junior Colleges, it is believed that practically all junior colleges maintaining adult-education programs provided information.

COMPOSITION OF ENROLMENTS.—The distribution by sex of students is given in Table 4. The data in this table show that the adult-education programs offered by jun-

TABLE 4.—MEDIAN ENROLMENTS OF MEN AND WOMEN STUDENTS ENROLLED IN ADULT-EDUCATION PROGRAMS OFFERED BY JUNIOR COLLEGES

<i>Classification of College</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men and Women</i>
Small public	30	17	55
Large public:			
Excluding evening junior colleges	100	50	161
Evening junior colleges only	872	1,040	1,810
All large public	163	92	204
Total public	71	39	108
Private	15	11	28
All junior colleges	45	30	74

students in junior colleges and the enrolment of special students. It is practically certain that more refined methods of compiling information on special students would reveal that many of them could not validly be considered adult students.

The covering letter and schedule used to compile data for the study reported in this article directed the thinking of the respondents toward services rendered for adults over and above those provided for regular students. Because the inquiry was sent to all junior colleges and was carried out as a project fos-

ior colleges attract more men than women students. This finding holds for all classifications with the exception of the evening junior colleges, and it should be of interest to all persons responsible for the establishment and promotion of adult-education programs. The evidence already presented showed that public junior colleges feel a greater responsibility for adult-education services than do private colleges. As would be expected, therefore, the median enrolments of adult-education students in those colleges are higher than those for private institutions. Ranked in the

order of size, the median enrolments for colleges in the several classifications are: evening junior colleges, 1,810; large public junior colleges, excluding evening junior colleges, 161; small public junior colleges, 55; and private junior colleges, 28. The large median enrol-

college level were first made. Replies on this item were received from one hundred junior colleges. Compilation of the years by five-year intervals is provided in Table 5. The data presented in this table reveal that most junior colleges have only recently entered the field

TABLE 5.—DISTRIBUTION OF 100 JUNIOR COLLEGES ACCORDING TO DATE OF INAUGURATION OF ADULT-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Date	Public Junior Colleges			Private Junior Colleges	Total
	Small	Large	Total		
1920-24:					
Number	3	3
Per cent	12.0	3.0
1925-29:					
Number	1	5	6	1	7
Per cent	3.3	11.1	8.0	4.0	7.0
1930-34:					
Number	1	4	5	7	12
Per cent	3.3	8.9	6.6	28.0	12.0
1935-39:					
Number	7	16	23	4	27
Per cent	23.3	35.6	30.7	16.0	27.0
1940-44:					
Number	9	14	23	4	27
Per cent	30.0	31.1	30.7	16.0	27.0
1945-47:					
Number	12	6	18	6	24
Per cent	40.0	13.3	24.0	24.0	24.0
Total:					
Number ..	30	45	75	25	100
Per cent ..	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

ment of the evening junior colleges attests the popularity of the adult-education opportunities afforded by those institutions.

Dates of Establishment

The schedule asked respondents to report the year in which adult-education offerings at the junior-

of adult education. In fact, if we may generalize from the experience of the hundred institutions which answered the question, almost four-fifths of the adult-education programs now being offered by junior colleges were inaugurated after 1934.

It is interesting to compare the

development of adult-education programs with recent past social conditions. For example, the private junior colleges show a seven-fold increase in adult-education programs inaugurated during the period of the economic depression (1930-34) over the preceding five-year period. In the next two five-year intervals, a decrease occurred in the number of new programs of adult education offered. The years 1945-47, however, show a renewed interest in adult education. This increase may result from efforts to meet the demands of servicemen.

The small public junior colleges show a continuous increase in the percentage of junior colleges that set up adult-education programs through the periods shown. In view of the fact that the last period (1945-47) is shorter than the other periods used, this would signify that the period has brought a greater-than-usual increase in new adult-education programs in this group of institutions. Again, the effect of the demands of veterans may be a reason behind this increase.

The large public junior colleges made the largest gains during the periods just before and at the time of the last World War, but the second of these periods was not so active as the first. During the period of 1945-47, the group of large public junior colleges was the only group that showed a decrease

in the number of junior colleges entering the field of adult education. Since it was shown in Table 1 that one-third of the large junior colleges still have no adult-education programs, the only explanation which can be given for this decrease is that the institutions are taxed to the utmost to meet the demands of regular student enrolments and are thereby prevented from entering the new field. This comment was frequently made voluntarily by respondents.

Adult-Education Curriculum Offerings

The study undertook to ascertain the areas or types of curriculums in which courses were being offered in adult-education programs. To this end, respondents were asked to indicate whether their institutions offered adult-education courses in two major divisions: preparatory to higher education and nonpreparatory to higher education. Within the nonpreparatory division, to be checked if courses were offered, were listed vocational, homemaking, and recreational areas. The vocational area was further subdivided into three divisions: commercial, technical, and agricultural. Table 6 provides a summary of the responses to this portion of the inquiry. A few institutions added other offerings, such as "Western Coal-mining" and "Parent Education," but, since

these occurred only in single frequencies, the offerings were tabulated with the most nearly suitable of the foregoing categories.

In all areas of curriculum offerings listed in Table 6, the large public colleges have the highest percentages offering courses. These colleges are, in all cases, followed

the large public junior colleges is nearly two-thirds.

From the evidence presented in this table, the fact is presented strongly that the major emphasis of adult-education programs is on the areas that are nonpreparatory to higher education. Well-nigh all junior colleges in all classifications

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES OFFERING ADULT-EDUCATION COURSES IN VARIOUS AREAS OR CURRICULUMS

Area or Curriculum	Public Junior Colleges			Private Junior Colleges (44)	Total (144)
	Small (43)*	Large (57)	Total (100)		
Preparatory to higher education	46.5	63.2	56.0	36.4	50.0
Nonpreparatory	95.4	100.0	98.0	93.2	96.5
Vocational	83.7	94.7	90.0	65.9	82.6
Commercial	69.8	87.7	80.0	52.3	71.5
Technical	48.8	70.2	61.0	25.0	50.0
Agricultural	23.3	42.1	34.0	6.8	25.7
Cultural and citizenship	67.4	73.7	71.0	54.6	66.0
Homemaking	27.9	57.9	45.0	11.4	34.7
Recreational	27.9	50.9	41.0	15.9	33.3

* The numbers in parentheses correspond to the number of junior colleges with adult-education programs in each classification.

by the small public junior colleges, with the private junior colleges showing the smallest percentages of institutions offering courses in the given areas. Apparently, therefore, the public junior colleges attempt to be more comprehensive in their offerings. In the area of preparation for higher education, slightly more than a third of the private junior colleges offer courses; the proportion of small public junior colleges offering courses in this area is nearly a half; and that of

offer courses in nonpreparatory areas. The large public junior colleges are especially noteworthy in this regard, for all institutions in this class offer nonpreparatory courses.

Within the area designated as nonpreparatory, the major emphasis is placed on the vocational offerings. Sixty-six per cent of the private junior colleges offer courses in vocational areas. The proportions for the small public and large public junior colleges are 83.7 and 94.7

per cent, respectively. In the area of cultural and citizenship offerings, the proportions are considerably lower: about half for the private junior colleges, roughly two-thirds for the small public and nearly three-fourths for the large public institutions. In comparison with the vocational and cultural and citizenship areas, the number of junior colleges with adult-education programs offering opportunities in the areas of homemaking and recreational activities is astonishingly low. The private junior college group is the only one with more colleges providing courses in the area of recreational activity than in homemaking. Such low proportions of colleges offering opportunities for adult training in homemaking and for recreational activity raises the question: Does this situation result from lack of demand for such courses on the part of the adults coming to junior colleges for educational service or from the fact that the colleges prefer to offer courses in the other areas?

In the division of vocational offerings greatest emphasis is given to commercial courses. In all classifications of junior colleges, the order of emphasis of course offerings within the vocational category is commercial, technical, and agricultural. In the case of the private junior colleges, more than twice as many offer commercial courses as

offer technical courses, while the ratio between technical and agricultural courses is almost four to one. The small public junior colleges have smaller differences than the private junior colleges. The proportion of small public colleges offering commercial training is about one and a half times the proportion offering technical courses, and the latter percentage, in turn, is about twice as large as the proportion offering agricultural courses. In contrast with the large differences between junior colleges offering commercial, technical, and agricultural courses in the private and the small public classifications, the percentage of large public junior colleges offering commercial courses is only slightly larger than the proportion offering technical courses. This means that the large public junior colleges can afford the necessary outlay to obtain personnel and to provide shops and other facilities for such offerings. In the large public junior college classification, too, there is less difference between the proportions of institutions offering technical and agricultural courses. The ratio between these two areas in the group is 1.67 to one.

Summary and Conclusions

Several notable observations can be drawn from the evidence gathered in this study of status. Only at

comparatively recent dates have junior colleges begun to give emphasis to provision of adult-education services. Nevertheless, they have progressed to the point where many junior colleges have programs in operation. In the sample on which this report is based, almost half the junior colleges offer programs of adult education. A feeling of responsibility for meeting the educational needs of adults is particularly evident among the public junior colleges, both large and small. Whether provided by colleges under public or private control, almost every state in the nation has at least one junior college which maintains a program of adult education.

With regard to the offerings made by junior colleges in their programs of adult education, the major emphasis is on vocational subjects, with courses in cultural subjects, citizenship, homemaking, and recreational areas following in that order. The small emphasis given to homemaking and recreational offerings suggests that these are areas which have been neglected and need further investigation and promotion by the public-relations functionaries of the

colleges. Because training in home life and opportunity to engage in wholesome leisure-time activities are most important and because the social and technological forces at work are tending to make them even more important in the future, it might be wise for American junior colleges to review their offerings in these two fields. All types of junior colleges stress opportunities for preparation in commercial fields. The number of colleges offering such courses greatly exceeds the number offering opportunities in technical and agricultural training. This situation probably results from a greater demand for commercial training on the part of students combined with the greater ease and economy with which commercial courses can be provided.

In conclusion, it may be said that adult education is a service being rendered by American junior colleges. With the increased emphasis on the value of education throughout life, with more leisure time for adults, and with a rising standard of living, this service bids fair, when present overcrowded conditions are alleviated, to be an expanding and increasingly important educational function of the junior college.

Junior-College Teachers: Preparation in Education

LEONARD V. KOOS

THIS article undertakes to answer the question of what work junior-college teachers have taken in the field of education. It is the third in a series of articles on the preparation and the work of junior-college teachers. The first two articles were published in the October and the December issues of the *Junior College Journal* and dealt, respectively, with (1) degrees and periods of graduate residence and (2) subjects taught and specialized preparation as indicated by graduate and undergraduate majors and minors.

Specifically, the information given here concerns (a) the number of semester hours of education reported by the teachers and (b) the proportions of teachers who indicated that they had taken certain courses in the field.

The teacher population is the same as that represented in the

earlier articles; it includes the teaching staffs of forty-eight local public junior colleges in the Midwest and the South and California. The total number of teachers in junior colleges represented in the entire study, of which this article is a part, is 1,458, although, as has been seen in the earlier articles, the numbers supplying information for particular aspects of the study are somewhat but not seriously smaller. The proportions supplying usable answers for this aspect of the inquiry were slightly smaller than for others because some respondents could not trust their memories over the lapse of years since they had taken the work. For the light thrown on junior-college teachers, comparisons are made at various points with information along the same lines obtained from high-school teachers in the same school systems. These teachers, 1,089 in number, were all giving instruction in Grades XI and XII, but not above this level, although many were teaching also in high-school grades below.

The portion of the three-page

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schedule used in collecting evidence from the teachers, on which they supplied the information presented here, listed a large number of courses recurrently included in the offerings of schools and departments of education and left spaces for the teachers to insert the names of other education courses that they had taken. For each course, space was provided for indicating the number of semester hours of credit represented. At the foot of this section of the schedule the respondent was asked to report the "total semester hours in education." First to be presented here is the evidence concerning the total semester hours in education, and this will be followed by report on the percentages who have had the particular courses.

Semester Hours in Education

COMPARISONS OF THE GROUPS OF TEACHERS.—A glance at the distributions of teachers according to the number of semester hours in education, by five-hour intervals, in Table 1, finds the range to be exceedingly wide. Totally, the spread from most of the junior-college groups studied is from no work in the field to as much as a hundred semester hours. However, the great majority fall within a more moderate range, as is suggested by the facts that the interquartile range for all junior-college teachers represented (see the "Total" column

in the junior-college division of the table) is from twenty-one to forty-two hours and that the interquartile ranges for all six preceding columns do not depart notably from an approximately twenty-hour spread.

Using the two quartile and the median measures for the total group as the point of departure in the comparisons, one may note that the corresponding measures for teachers of academic subjects run a little lower. On the other hand, these measures for the teachers of special subjects run somewhat higher than for the total group and appreciably higher than for the academic group. The difference obtains despite the typically smaller proportion of higher degrees and shorter periods of graduate residence of special teachers, as shown in the October article. This tendency to somewhat larger amounts of work in education among teachers of special subjects is probably to be explained mainly by the fact that, typically, larger amounts of work in "special methods" are included in programs of teachers of special than in programs of teachers of academic subjects.

Other interesting tendencies to difference emerge when attention is focused on these measures for teachers giving instruction at the junior-college level only as compared with those doing dual-level (both college and high-school)

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS BY NUMBERS OF SEMESTER HOURS OF EDUCATION; FIRST QUARTILE, MEDIAN, AND THIRD QUARTILE NUMBERS OF SEMESTER HOURS; AND PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS WITH FEWER THAN 15 SEMESTER HOURS

Semester Hours	Junior College						High School Only			
	Academic		Special		Total	Academic	Special	All	All	All
	Junior College Only	Dual Level	All	Junior College Only	Dual Level	All	Junior College Only	Dual Level	All	All
0-4	4	7	11	1	1	1	12	4	3	7
5-9	9	6	15	4	8	5	6	11	6	11
10-14	39	23	62	3	11	14	23	7	7	20
15-19	74	67	141	15	21	36	177	92	36	128
20-24	91	82	173	24	44	68	241	139	55	194
25-29	51	44	95	16	39	55	150	74	52	126
30-34	41	50	91	18	39	57	148	78	55	133
35-39	28	37	65	18	32	50	115	38	30	68
40-44	20	29	49	13	22	35	84	41	26	67
45-49	15	25	40	9	19	28	68	26	19	45
50-54	13	11	24	8	11	19	43	28	21	49
55-59	9	8	17	8	10	18	35	20	15	35
60-64	10	15	25	4	7	11	36	10	9	19
65-69	8	3	11	6	4	10	21	8	7	15
70-74	6	6	12	2	9	11	23	2	4	6
75-79	4	10	14	3	5	8	22	4	2	6
80-84	6	1	7	2	2	4	11	1	1	1
85-89	3	1	4	1	1	2	8	1	1	3
90-94	2	3	5	1	2	3	8	1	1	1
95-99	3	3	1	1	2
100	2	2	...	2	5
Total	435	428	863	157	289	446	1,309	585	351	936
First quartile	19	20	20	24	24	24	21	21	23	22
Median	25	29	27	35	33	33	29	28	32	29
Third quartile	38	41	40	49	46	47	42	40	44	41
Percentage with fewer than 15 semester hours	12.0	8.4	10.2	4.5	5.5	5.2	8.5	3.8	4.6	4.1

teaching. For academic teachers the measures are a bit higher for dual-level than for "junior-college only" teachers, whereas for special teachers the measures tend to run a little higher for those teaching at the junior-college level only. However, the differences are hardly large enough to be of moment.

One of the most significant facts disclosed in comparing the measures is the close similarity of those for high-school to those for junior-college teachers. Six of these measures shown at the foot of the three columns for high-school teachers miss coincidence with corresponding measures for junior-college teachers (see the third, sixth, and seventh columns) by only a single semester hour, two coincide, and in only a single instance (third quartile for special teachers) are the corresponding measures as much as three semester hours apart. The degree of coincidence is so great as to call for a word of explanation, which must be found in the background of experience of junior-college teachers not yet reported in this series of articles: this background is high-school teaching, and the work in education reported by junior-college teachers is, in the main, that taken to prepare for teaching at the high-school level.

The equivalence of the preparation of junior-college and high-school teachers in the field of education is highlighted by the con-

trast that these amounts of work afford with amounts taken by teachers who give instruction at the junior-college level in colleges and universities. No recent evidence for the latter groups is readily available, but, since no great extent of change in this respect has taken place in the meantime, comparison may be made with measures obtained by the writer for teachers in colleges and universities a quarter-century ago. He found that for teachers giving instruction in Freshman and Sophomore years in representative colleges, the median number of semester hours in education was 5.0, and in two representative universities, one state and the other private, it was only 1.8. For local public junior-college teachers in the same school year, the median was 16.2 and for private junior-college teachers, it was 21.5.¹ It may be inferred, from comparison of the figures for the two periods, that the amount of work taken in education by junior-college teachers has moved up during the interval.

The lowest row of figures in Table 1 stresses once more the implications emerging from this comparison of junior-college and high-school teachers. It presents the percentages of all groups who re-

¹ Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior College*, I, 203. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1924.

ported fewer than fifteen semester hours of education. This point in the distributions is used because it is just below the amounts of work in education prescribed for certification for high-school teaching, which in many states range from fifteen semester hours upward. The proportions of teachers below the fifteen-hour level in all groups are small. For academic teachers in the junior colleges the percentages are slightly larger than for the other groups, but, even among them, the inquiry finds only a moiety of teachers. At most, this is hardly more than a negligible yielding in local public junior colleges to the collegiate tradition of no requirement whatever in the field of education for college teachers.

Thus, so far as the amount of work in this field is concerned, two observations can be made. The first protrudes unequivocally from the evidence and scarcely needs repetition. It is that teachers in local public junior colleges have had amounts of work in education almost exactly identical to those of high-school teachers. The second, which takes into account related evidence not presented in this article, is that the equivalence arises because most of these junior-college teachers have been or still are in part high-school teachers and because requirements in the field of education for certification for junior-college teaching are little, if

at all, different from those for high-school teaching, or because both these reasons are operating.

INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATION.—The question may be raised whether and in what degree the amount of work in education is affected by the type of junior-college organization, that is, by separate two-year units, associations, and four-year junior colleges. Analysis of the evidence in relation to this question is presented in Table 2, and a few comments are here made in interpretation of the measures reported. With only minor exceptions, the general impression yielded by examination of these measures, at least for groups of teachers large enough to assure reliability, is in line with that derived from comparison of the groups in Table 1, and that is the approximate equivalence of the measures. From this impression it may be concluded that the measures are only in small degree affected by the type of organization.

Two tendencies to exception are large enough to be mentioned. One of these concerns the measures for teachers of academic subjects in separate two-year colleges, where the median and the third quartile are smaller than for other groups and where the percentage with fewer than fifteen semester hours is the largest in the column reporting these proportions. Here, again, may be noted hardly more than a negligible yielding to the tradition

of no requirements whatever in the field of education for college and university teachers. The other tendency, not consistent throughout the table, is for the quartiles and the medians to be larger and the percentages with fewer than fifteen hours to be smaller for teachers in four-year units than in the other patterns of organization.

The Courses in Education

As previously stated, the teachers were asked to indicate which courses in education, in a list sup-

plied in the printed schedule, they had had and to add, in the blank spaces provided, the names of other courses in the field which they had taken. The printed list included twenty-seven courses recurrently offered in schools and departments of education. The evidence derived is here presented in two portions carried by two tables, one concerning the courses in the printed list and the other concerning those written in by respondents.

Presentation and interpretation of the two tables should be pre-

TABLE 2.—MEASURES OF AMOUNTS OF WORK IN EDUCATION REPORTED BY ACADEMIC AND SPECIAL TEACHERS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS IN THE THREE TYPES OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE ORGANIZATION

Level, Subject Classification, and Type of Organization	Number of Teachers	First Quartile	Median	Third Quartile	Percentage with Fewer than 15 Semester Hours
<i>Junior-college level only</i>					
Academic:					
Separate two-year	206	18	24	33	15.5
Association	152	18	27	41	8.6
Four-year	77	19	25	41	9.1
Special:					
Separate two-year	86	24	34	48	5.8
Association	34	20	32	50	2.9
Four-year	37	23	40	57	2.7
<i>Dual level</i>					
Academic:					
Separate two-year	9*	36	11.1
Association	201	18	24	37	11.4
Four-year	218	21	31	44	5.5
Special:					
Separate two-year	11*	329
Association	142	23	31	41	5.6
Four-year	136	26	35	47	5.1
<i>High-school level only</i>					
Academic:					
Separate two-year	165	21	28	42	4.3
Association	350	20	25	36	4.0
Four-year	70	24	33	39	1.4
Special:					
Separate two-year	123	26	33	44	.8
Association	194	21	28	39	7.2
Four-year	34	23	33	56	2.9

* Number of teachers too small to assure reliability of the measures.

ceded by explanation of the teacher population whose responses were compiled for this particular section of the study. Limitations of time and funds prevented including all responses received, and a representation of the group included in other aspects of the entire study was selected, which, while not fully acceptable from all standpoints, is satisfactory so far as the inferences drawn are concerned. In the tabulations are included the responses from all teachers in twenty-three junior-college situations from whom usable replies were received. Included also are the responses from all high-school teachers giving instruction in Grades XI and XII in the school systems represented. The numbers of teachers in the different groups are noted at the foot of Table 3 and may be seen, with one exception (the special teachers giving instruction at the junior-college level only) to be large enough to assure trustworthy percentages. The junior colleges included are distributed to eight states, whereas the distribution in other aspects of the study has been to nine states; that is, the present representation is almost as wide geographically as is the whole study.

A further preliminary comment seems desirable before the percentages in Table 3 are interpreted, and this concerns the grouping of teachers used. Comparison of this grouping with that of Table 1 will

find the two arrangements to differ somewhat. The reason for departure from the previous grouping resides in the problem of tabular presentation. Still another comment concerns the names of courses used. Diverse names are often assigned to courses with essentially identical content. To save space, this diversity is not even illustrated here, as it is assumed that persons conversant with the field of education will be cognizant of most of the variant designations.

Careful study and comparison of the percentages for junior-college and high-school teachers in Table 3 forces a conclusion foreshadowed by the near-equivalence of the numbers of semester hours reported in Table 1: that the programs of work in the field of education included in the preparation of these two main groups of teachers have been very similar. One finds, in looking at the percentages for courses taken by approximately a half or more of the junior-college teachers and comparing with these the percentages for high-school teachers, that the proportions are approximately the same. For example, 44.0 per cent of junior-college teachers and 44.7 per cent of high-school teachers reported having had the course "Introduction to Education." In looking down the list of courses, we see that approximate equivalence of the percentages obtains for "History of Edu-

TABLE 3.—PERCENTAGES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF TEACHERS REPORTING HAVING HAD THE COURSES IN EDUCATION LISTED IN THE PRINTED SCHEDULE

<i>Courses in Education</i>	<i>Junior-College Level*</i>	<i>Dual Level†</i>	<i>All Junior-College Teachers‡</i>	<i>High School Only§</i>
1. Introduction to Education:				
Academic	43.0	36.0	39.0	44.7
Special	78.6	49.3	54.1	44.6
Both	48.6	41.6	44.0	44.7
2. History of Education:				
Academic	81.2	74.0	77.1	71.4
Special	82.1	61.8	65.1	67.2
Both	81.4	68.9	73.1	69.8
3. Philosophy (or Principles) of Education:				
Academic	57.7	56.0	56.7	57.8
Special	67.9	49.3	52.3	51.8
Both	59.3	53.2	55.3	55.5
4. Educational Sociology:				
Academic	28.9	32.5	30.9	31.4
Special	35.7	36.8	36.6	31.8
Both	30.0	34.3	32.8	31.5
5. Educational Psychology:				
Academic	83.9	80.0	81.7	73.9
Special	78.6	75.0	75.6	73.8
Both	83.1	77.9	79.7	73.9
6. Psychology of Adolescence:				
Academic	30.9	26.5	28.4	28.0
Special	42.9	34.0	35.5	26.2
Both	32.8	29.7	30.7	27.3
7. Tests and Measurements:				
Academic	70.5	49.0	58.2	45.3
Special	85.7	48.6	54.7	50.3
Both	72.9	48.8	57.0	47.2
8. Educational Administration:				
Academic	39.0	32.5	35.2	25.5
Special	50.0	28.5	32.0	20.0
Both	40.7	30.8	34.2	23.4
9. City-School Administration:				
Academic	17.4	14.5	15.8	7.8
Special	14.3	10.4	11.1	7.7
Both	16.9	12.8	14.2	7.7

TABLE 3.—Continued

<i>Courses in Education</i>	<i>Junior-College Level*</i>	<i>Dual Level†</i>	<i>All Junior-College Teachers‡</i>	<i>High School Only§</i>
10. Secondary-School Administration:				
Academic	33.6	33.5	33.5	21.7
Special	39.3	21.5	24.4	18.5
Both	34.5	28.5	30.5	20.5
11. Supervision:				
Academic	26.2	13.5	18.9	17.4
Special	42.9	24.3	27.3	18.5
Both	28.8	18.0	21.7	17.8
12. Principles of Secondary Education:				
Academic	47.0	51.5	49.6	51.6
Special	60.7	51.4	52.9	46.7
Both	49.2	51.5	50.7	49.7
13. Junior College:				
Academic	12.8	7.0	9.5	3.4
Special	10.7	2.1	3.5	1.5
Both	12.4	4.9	7.5	2.7
14. Junior-College Administration:				
Academic	5.4	2.0	3.4	0.9
Special7	0.6	.5
Both	4.5	1.5	2.5	0.8
15. College and University Administration:				
Academic	2.7	0.5	1.4	0.6
Special	3.66	.5
Both	2.8	0.3	1.2	0.6
16. Curriculum (General):				
Academic	24.8	24.0	24.4	12.7
Special	21.4	18.1	18.6	7.7
Both	24.3	21.5	22.5	10.8
17. Secondary-School Curriculum:				
Academic	22.8	25.5	24.4	18.0
Special	39.3	19.4	22.7	17.9
Both	25.4	23.0	23.8	18.0
18. Principles of Teaching:				
Academic	43.6	41.5	42.4	50.9
Special	71.4	43.7	48.3	43.6
Both	48.0	42.4	44.3	48.2
19. General Methods:				
Academic	52.3	50.5	51.3	50.6
Special	53.6	46.5	47.7	48.7
Both	52.5	48.8	50.1	49.9

TABLE 3.—Continued

<i>Courses in Education</i>	<i>Junior-College Level*</i>	<i>Dual Level†</i>	<i>All Junior-College Teachers‡</i>	<i>High School Only§</i>
20. Classroom Management:				
Academic	20.8	21.5	21.2	19.9
Special	32.1	20.8	22.7	12.8
Both	22.6	21.2	21.7	17.2
21. Special Methods:				
Academic	57.0	51.5	53.9	55.3
Special	46.4	56.2	54.7	52.3
Both	55.4	53.5	54.1	54.2
22. Practice Teaching:				
Academic	56.4	61.0	59.0	58.4
Special	50.0	74.3	70.3	65.6
Both	55.4	66.6	62.8	61.1
23. Guidance (Educational or Vocational):				
Academic	18.1	19.5	18.9	17.7
Special	28.6	19.4	20.9	26.7
Both	19.8	19.5	19.6	21.1
24. Vocational Education:				
Academic	10.7	8.5	9.5	8.7
Special	39.3	22.9	25.6	27.2
Both	15.3	14.5	14.8	15.7
25. Student Personnel Service in Higher Institutions:				
Academic	4.7	4.0	4.3	2.2
Special	2.1	1.7	1.5
Both	4.0	3.2	3.5	1.9
26. Psychiatric Problems in Education:				
Academic	7.4	6.0	6.6	5.3
Special	2.8	2.3	2.6
Both	6.2	4.7	5.2	4.3
27. Seminar:				
Academic	18.8	23.5	21.5	14.3
Special	17.9	22.9	22.1	14.4
Both	18.6	23.3	21.7	14.3

* The teachers giving instruction at the junior-college level only number: academic, 149; special, 28; both, 177.

† The teachers doing dual-level teaching number: academic, 200; special, 144; both, 344.

‡ The total number of junior-college teachers represented is: academic, 349; special, 172; both, 521.

§ The teachers giving instruction at the high-school level only are: academic, 322; special, 195; both, 517.

cation," "Philosophy (or Principles) of Education," "Educational Psychology," "Principles of Secondary Education," "Principles of Teaching," "General Methods," "Special Methods," and "Practice Teaching." These courses are the most frequently recurrent requirements in education in programs of high-school teacher preparation.

When one scrutinizes the columns of percentages for courses more frequently reported by junior-college than by high-school teachers, in order to identify the elements of the programs in which there has been differentiation, one may note that the percentages of junior-college teachers are significantly larger for "Tests and Measurements," "Educational Administration," "City-School Administration," "Secondary-School Administration," "Junior College," "Curriculum (General)," and, perhaps, "Student Personnel Service in Higher Institutions." However, there is no great lag of high-school behind junior-college percentages for any of these courses. Besides, some of the courses, like "Educational Administration," "City-School Administration," and "Curriculum (General)," have no greater significance for junior-college than for high-school teaching. For courses that may have peculiar significance for junior-college teaching, namely, "Junior College," "Junior-College Administration," "College

and University Administration," and "Student Personnel Service in Higher Institutions," the proportions are distressingly low, and one may deplore, in contemplation of the small percentage of junior-college teachers reporting that they have had the course on the junior college, that so few of them have had the opportunity of giving systematic consideration in a course to the institution in which they are working.

The only courses in the list in which teachers giving instruction solely at the high-school level have higher percentages than junior-college teachers are "Principles of Teaching" and "Guidance," and for these the differences are not large.

The courses taken by special teachers in junior colleges with considerably greater frequency than by academic teachers are "Introduction to Education," "Psychology of Adolescence," "Supervision," "Practice Teaching," and "Vocational Education." The reason for this approach to differentiation for most of the courses is not readily discernible, except that one can explain the much greater frequency of the course in "Vocational Education" by the occupational significance of many of the special subjects.

The procedure here in reporting on other courses taken by the teachers and written by them into

the schedule is that of listing in Table 4 only those most frequently inserted. A total of upwards of sixty different courses was thus inserted, but, as may be seen in the table, for only twenty courses was the proportion of junior-college teachers as large as one per cent or over, and for none did it exceed

of courses affirms rather than modifies the main conclusion drawn from the percentages for the printed list as reported in Table 3.

Concluding Comment

The main conclusion just alluded to stands out so unequivocally and repeatedly in the evidence

TABLE 4.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS INSERTING NAMES OF CERTAIN COURSES IN EDUCATION NOT LISTED IN THE SCHEDULE AS ADDITIONAL COURSES WHICH THEY HAD TAKEN

<i>Course</i>	<i>Junior College</i>	<i>High School</i>
School Law	4.0	3.1
Educational Statistics	3.5	3.3
Child Growth	2.5	2.5
Junior High School	2.3	1.7
Extra-curriculum	1.9	1.5
Educational Research	1.7	.8
Child Psychology	1.5	.6
Citizenship Education	1.5	1.2
Comparative Education	1.3	1.0
Mental Hygiene	1.3	1.0
School Hygiene	1.3	.6
Exceptional Child	1.2	1.2
Audio-visual Education	1.2	.6
Health Education	1.2	1.2
Rural Education	1.2	.4
Thesis-writing	1.2	.6
School Organization	1.0	.8
School Finance	1.0	1.0
Elementary School	1.0	.6
Industrial Education	1.0	1.0

4 per cent. Because of the small numbers reporting, refinement in grouping the teachers (beyond reporting for all junior-college and for all high-school teachers) was not profitable. Percentages for the two groups are not markedly different, and, because all are small, they appear to yield no special significance for junior-college teaching. It seems safe to say that the evidence from the supplementary list

that is is almost superfluous to restate it. This conclusion is that the preparation in the field of education of junior-college teachers is almost identical with that of high-school teachers. For a small minority, this preparation includes a course on the junior college and a few other elements of differentiation. One interested in the junior college may be excused for deplored the fact that most of its

teachers have had no opportunity for systematic consideration in a course of the institution in which they are at work.

Final appraisal for junior-college teachers of a program of courses in education intended for high-school-teacher preparation is out of the question in this article, but a few comments at least toward such an appraisal may be ventured. One is justified in wishing that the program for junior-college teachers would include a better recognition of elements of peculiar significance for teaching at the junior-college level than does the typical program for high-school teachers. At the same time, remonstrance is in order against the attitude of persons steeped in the collegiate tradition who contend that all this work taken in preparation for high-school teaching is beside the point as preparation for teaching at the

next higher level. Complete appraisal would take into account the large extent of overlapping of junior-college and high-school courses and the nearness of age and interests of the student population at the two levels. Such an appraisal would be certain to find much in common in the preparation in education needed for those two levels. While urging the setting-up of programs better suited for preparing junior-college teachers, one would be justified in contending that the program of courses in education required of high-school teachers would be better, with other elements such as subject-matter preparation and personality kept constant, than the present preparation of teachers at the same level in colleges and universities, who typically have had no systematic opportunity for consideration of teaching and other educational problems.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

WHEN the American Association of Junior Colleges was founded in 1920, the chief function of the colleges was conceived to be lower-division instruction in the liberal arts. Two years later, at the second annual meeting in Memphis, this view was crystallized into the following definition: "The junior college is an institution offering two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade." At the fifth annual meeting in Cincinnati, the conception of the role of the junior college had expanded considerably. It was expressed as follows: "The junior college may, and is likely to, develop a different type of curriculum suited to the larger and ever changing civic, social, religious, and vocational needs of the entire community in which the college is located."

Comparatively speaking, the first function of the junior college was easily performed. Patterns for programs had been set; available instructors understood and were in sympathy with them; teaching materials could be secured; respectability and prestige were attached to them. The success of the junior college was measured by widely pub-

licized records made by graduates transferring to senior institutions. Even today, the average junior-college catalogue emphasizes the importance of the university-parallel curriculums by placing them in first position. Terminal programs are given second position, and vocational courses are sometimes tucked away in the last pages or are not mentioned at all. The Executive Secretary has discovered, on field trips, that some junior colleges, offering special and adult classes for students on a part-time basis, have listed neither the courses of study nor the students.

For several years, leaders in the junior-college movement have used their utmost influence to change this attitude. The fact that the General Education Board gave more than \$135,000 for research, workshops, and publications concerned with terminal education is evidence of the serious consideration that the problem has received. Reasons backed up by well-known facts and trends in education need not be repeated here in support of terminal curriculums. They have been presented by Eells, Harbeson,

Mason, Ricciardi, Snyder, and Zook in *Why Junior College Terminal Education?* (Terminal Education Monograph No. 3. American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941). The philosophy of the terminal functions has been lucidly set forth in *Terminal Education in the Junior College* by Miss Phebe Ward (Harper & Bros., 1947).

The writer has listened to many excuses for failure to offer terminal education and many statements about the difficulties involved: students do not want the program; parents have greater ambitions for their children; the equipment is too expensive; the college is too small; senior institutions look down on us; teachers cannot be found who are competent; textbooks and teaching materials suitable for the courses of study are almost impossible to find. The writer realizes how forceful some of these reasons really are. They are all receiving serious thought by the Committees on Research and Service of the Association. Solutions are being found for some of them, and solutions must be found for all of them.

Publishing companies have become increasingly interested in the problem of textbooks and teaching materials. The junior colleges, with enrolments of nearly 450,000 in 1946-47 and with every prospect that enrolments will climb higher

each year, should create interest even on a purely commercial basis. In order to assist in the solution of the problem of textbooks and teaching materials, the McGraw-Hill Book Company has announced a competition for three cash awards, amounting to \$1,000, \$500, and \$250, for the three best manuscripts appropriate for technical-terminal education in junior colleges. These awards are offered as a special inducement to authors and are in addition to the usual royalties.

In making the announcement, the company states that their action has been guided by a report of a special advisory committee of junior-college educators. This committee was asked to determine the precise needs for new and appropriate text materials in junior-college technical-terminal education. The situation in the field of textbook materials is well summarized in the editorial by Lawrence L. Bethel appearing in this issue of the *Junior College Journal*.

The McGraw-Hill Book Company states in its announcement that it accepts its responsibility as a publisher for aiding developments in the junior-college field, for it recognizes that progress in junior-college technical-terminal education is dependent on the development and publication of appropriate textbooks. The initial responsibility for producing these materials belongs,

however, to members of junior-college faculties.

It is interesting to note that some progress is being made in the publication of textbooks by members of junior-college faculties. In some instances a manuscript may be developed through the collaboration of two or more instructors within one or more junior colleges. In some cases a member of a junior-college faculty may collaborate with a specialist within a local industry. In other instances junior-college instructors may assist an author from a senior-college faculty in revising

manuscripts to make them appropriate to the peculiar needs of junior-college terminal programs. The results have shown that the job can be done. A co-operative effort in the development of textbooks intended specifically for junior colleges may prove to be another milestone in the development of American junior colleges. Only with such text materials can junior-college terminal education progress. The McGraw-Hill announcement comes as another inducement to junior-college faculties to accept a responsibility which only they can carry.

Junior-College World

JESSE P. BOGUE
Executive Secretary

JUNIOR COLLEGES PLAN MARYLAND ASSOCIATION

A group of educators meeting on December 6, 1947, at the Montgomery Junior College, Bethesda, approved preliminary plans for the formation of a Maryland Junior College Association.

Approximately 120 representatives of junior colleges, other institutions, and groups interested in the junior-college program attended the all-day meeting.

Dean Hugh G. Price, of Montgomery Junior College, was chosen chairman of the Organizing Committee. Other members named were Dean A. M. Isanogle, Hagerstown Junior College; Miss Lois E. Smith, registrar of Hagerstown Junior College; G. Gordon Woelper, principal of Baltimore Junior College; and T. H. Wilson, president of the Junior College of the University of Baltimore.

Principal speakers at the conference were Dr. Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges; Dr. John D. Russell, director of the Division of Higher Education, United States Office of Education; Dr.

Aaron J. Brumbaugh, vice-president of the American Council on Education; and Dr. James E. Spitznas, supervisor of curriculum, Maryland State Department of Education.

NAVY CITATION TO JUNIOR COLLEGES

The American Association of Junior Colleges has received a citation from the United States Navy for assistance in the recent reserve recruiting program. Nearly a million men have been secured by the Navy on a purely voluntary enlistment program. The citation to the Association is as follows:

The Secretary of the Navy and the Chief of Naval Operations have jointly authorized a citation to be awarded to the American Association of Junior Colleges in recognition of conspicuous service rendered in support of the Navy's Civilian Reserve Recruiting Program of 1947. On behalf of these authorities, I am happy to present this citation to you herewith.

Let me take this opportunity to add my personal thanks for the inestimable assistance which you gave this office and the Reserve Recruiting Campaign by your indorsement of the Program and by the close collaboration which

the American Association of Junior Colleges furnished in the task of reaching educators throughout the country. The Reserve Program has attained a gratifying degree of success, which is owing in no small measure to your generous services. Your initiative in stimulating interest among those under your leadership is deeply appreciated.

NORTH CENTRAL COUNCIL

The North Central Council of Junior Colleges held its annual meeting at Minneapolis on October 17, with approximately seventy-five institutions represented. Highlights of the convention included an address by Dr. Ruth Eckert, professor of higher education and co-ordinator of educational research at the University of Minnesota, who spoke on the subject of education at the junior-college level, and an address by Dr. Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Part of the session was devoted to a discussion period centering in the condition as it applies to junior colleges and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Definite indications were expressed that there might be a better understanding on the part of the North Central Association for the type of work that junior colleges are doing.

Dr. Loren Brown, of Northern Oklahoma Junior College, was elected president to succeed Dr.

Harlie Smith, of William Woods College, Missouri. Karl M. Wilson, Coffeyville Junior College, Kansas, was elected secretary-treasurer to succeed Dean A. G. Dodd, of Morgan Park Junior College, Illinois.

Members were urged to attend the national convention in Kansas City in February.

THE ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION

The fifteenth annual conference of junior colleges was held at Wright Branch of the Chicago City Junior College on November 15, 1947. Music for the conference was rendered by the Wright Junior College Band, Captain John H. Barabash, director, and by the North Park College Choir, Donald F. Ohlsen, leader.

"The Role of the Junior College in Higher Education" was the subject of the opening address by President R. W. Fairchild, Illinois State Normal University. Approximately five hundred administrators, faculty members, and students attended the conference. Following the main address, the conference convened for student round-table discussions of the following subjects: assemblies, clubs, dramatics, oratory and debate, music, publications, physical education, social life, student councils, and veterans' organizations. Faculty groups met for a consideration of administration and personnel, business education, secretarial education, English, foreign

language, humanities and fine arts, library, mathematics and engineering, music, physical education, psychology and philosophy, biological science, physical science, social science, and speech.

SUGGESTION.—The writer of this section of the *Junior College Journal* believes that the state workshop plan for junior-college conferences is excellent, and he commends it to all the states for serious thought. Student representation in these workshops is one of the best ways to reach the true grass roots with junior-college philosophy. Orchids to Illinois!

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION

The Southern Association of Junior Colleges met at Louisville, Kentucky, on December 1, 2, and 3, 1947, in connection with the annual convention of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The main address at the junior-college convention was given by President James C. Miller, of Christian College, Columbia, Missouri, on "The Role of the Women's Junior Colleges."

The new president of the Southern Association is Dr. Rabun L. Brantley, Virginia Intermont College, Bristol, Virginia, and the secretary-treasurer is Mr. J. B. Young, president of Jones County Junior College, Ellisville, Mississippi. Especial recognition and honors were extended to Dr. J. Thomas Davis,

former dean of John Tarleton Agricultural College, Stephenville, Texas, who was for many years the faithful convention secretary and in 1928 the president of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Dr. Davis is now teaching at John Tarleton and is hoping to attend the national convention in Kansas City.

NEW ENGLAND COUNCIL

The New England Junior College Council met in Boston on December 13, 1947, with the largest attendance in its history. The annual meeting is held in conjunction with the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It is an active and flourishing organization and, in many respects, is the leaven in the three measures of New England meal—the colleges, secondary schools, and the junior colleges themselves.

About the liveliest discussion on accreditation that we have heard in a long time was held in the business meeting. The Council now has under consideration for further study a resolution to set up an accrediting commission. Dr. Milton D. Proctor, president of Westbrook Junior College, Portland, Maine, is chairman of the committee dealing with the resolution. In 1944-45 Dr. Proctor was chairman of the committee of the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which rewrote the stand-

ards for membership of both senior and junior colleges in the Association.

An interesting presentation regarding the National Student Association was made by Miss Helen Thomas, president of the Student Council at Colby Junior College, New London, New Hampshire, and Mr. John Cox, a student in the Junior College of Connecticut of the University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, Connecticut. The writer and Dr. Karl W. Bigelow, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, addressed the luncheon meeting. Dr. Bigelow gave an inspiring lecture on "Effective Teaching in the Junior College."

The new president of the New England Council is Dr. John H. Kingsley, Vermont Junior College, Montpelier, Vermont, and the secretary-treasurer is Mrs. Charlotte D. Meinecke, Dean of Colby Junior College.

COLLEGE-AGE POPULATION STUDY

A challenging study has been published by the American Council on Education, Pacific Coast Committee, with respect to the expected increase of the college-age youth of the states of Arizona, California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington. By special permission of the American Council on Education, we are permitted to quote briefly from the publication. The numbers of persons in the college-age group in the

five respective states for 1947 and expected in 1964 are:

	1947	1964
Arizona	48,200	78,600
California	539,800	943,500
Nevada	7,500	13,700
Oregon	82,900	124,300
Washington	132,900	210,500

The Pacific Coast Committee has made a study which should be an example for every state in the nation to follow. Junior-college people will be interested in the following quotation from their report.

Shall we expand existing institutions to the point where they can carry the load? Remember that projections suggest double the 1939 enrolments, perhaps even double the 1946 enrolments. The problem has to be translated into doubled classroom area, doubled library facilities, doubled laboratory space and equipment, doubled instructional staff, and a considerable increase in administrative services and personnel. No doubt the physical expansion of present institutions will go a long way toward meeting the on-coming tide of students. However, there is probably a point somewhere along the line where bigness produces diminishing returns, especially where large classes and crowded libraries and laboratory rooms are envisioned. It is altogether possible that the expansion of existing schools will be only a partial solution.

Shall we increase the number of institutions offering higher education? We shall probably do so, but we cannot just think about it as a distant prospect. The need is now. There is much reason for thinking that it is more economical to bring a large

amount of higher education, especially for the first two years, closer home to the student. This can be done by providing more junior colleges and community colleges. Student housing alone is a large factor in the matter of meeting higher-education demands, so that bringing higher education closer to the thousands of student residences may prove the quickest and cheapest solution.

Solution of the problem by increasing the number of junior colleges is directly related to the large issue of redefining the function of higher education. Demands are emerging to subsidize students and more nearly to equalize educational opportunity in the secondary schools; either of these factors could radically alter the pattern of college attendance. There can be little doubt that, if a much wider cross-section of the population is enabled to undertake higher education, the wider vocational needs of this enlarged school population will require substantial alterations in the traditional college offerings, with attendant new problems of finance and student services.

MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL

The Junior College Council of the Middle States met in Atlantic City on November 29, 1947, with Dr. Hurst R. Anderson, of the Centenary Junior College, Hackettstown, New Jersey, as the presiding officer,

and Mrs. Ezra K. Maxfield, of Washington Seminary, Washington, Pennsylvania, as secretary. A feature of the meeting was the division of the Council members into two groups: one for a discussion of the problems unique to the women's junior colleges; the other, concerned with problems of especial interest to the public junior colleges and those for men.

The main address for the meeting was given by Dr. Clyde Hill, of Yale University, on "Liberalizing General Education." He traced the development of educational philosophies from the Greek conceptions to the present. The general educational plans now under discussion at various colleges and in commissions were considered. Dr. Hill expressed the conviction that the junior colleges, unbound by educational traditions, were the natural institutions in which the really liberalizing aspects of general education could be given.

The new president of the Middle States Council is Dr. Courtney Carroll, of Bennett Junior College, Millbrook, New York. Mrs. Maxfield was re-elected secretary of the Council.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

Residence Halls for Women Students: Administrative Principles and Procedures. Prepared by a Committee Appointed in 1946 by the National Association of Deans of Women. Washington: National Association of Deans of Women of the National Education Association, 1947. Pp. 95. \$1.25.

RELATIVELY little literature exists concerning college residence halls. That which has been written is concerned largely with the physical plant and equipment, with dietary problems, and, more recently, with the relation of scholarship to various kinds of housing. The book under review has been prepared by a committee of the National Association of Deans of Women and is a summary of the philosophy and procedures prevalent today on college campuses in this country, so far as women's halls are concerned. It is the first book which brings together many of the most important principles and practices found in residence halls, and it thus forms, in a sense, a handbook which will be found usable by those responsible for planning and administering college residences.

Current problems brought about by the rapidly rising tide of enrollment in college are presented. An appeal is made to those in positions of responsibility to consider carefully the problems and the weaknesses in the present scene with a view to preserving as many as possible of the important values in campus group life and minimizing the recognized dangers.

The matter of staff selection and organization is treated in terms of the increasingly popular concept that residence halls are an important educational facility as opposed to the view that their purpose is primarily one of shelter. With the change in concept of the function of residence halls, it is inevitable that ideas regarding qualifications of staff members should also change. If the residence hall for women is to make important contributions to the total educational program, it is not enough to put in charge a "nice woman" who "loves young people." The committee points out that the head resident should indeed, possess fine personal qualities but that she should also be equipped with a college education, a knowledge of psychology, experience in directing

group activities, and some training in student personnel work. The advantages of setting up staff positions on a full-time basis are discussed from the point of view of stability, continuity, and long-range planning. The plan of using members of the instructional staff on a part-time basis as heads of halls is considered rather disadvantageous because of the rigidity of classroom and office schedules and the unpredictability of pressure periods in dormitory life.

A variety of principles and practices of group living are outlined, including criteria used for admission to halls, the personnel aspects involved in room assignments, and the recording of necessary appropriate information concerning individuals and activities. The social program in a resident unit is broadly interpreted as including "all the influences that are consciously brought to bear upon the members of the group in order to promote their personal and social development" (p. 29). This program is said to operate through five main channels:

- a) Through the suggestions contributed by the physical environment
- b) Through the daily routine of living
- c) Through informal association of members
- d) Through planned activities—formal and informal
- e) Through the personal influence

and services contributed by members of the staff

The financing of social activities is recognized as a universal problem. Categories to aid the determination of bases for their support are suggested.

The importance of having students share in making and enforcing the regulations under which they live is stressed. The rules and regulations necessary for successful group living are shown to be based on certain relationships (1) between the institution and its members and (2) among the various members. A careful discussion of these relationships clearly reveals lines of authority. Some of the matters more prevalently regulated are closing hours, "quiet" hours, absence from campus, automobiling, chaperones, drinking, smoking, and entertaining guests.

Administration of the house and food department is carefully treated with the purpose in mind of calling attention to "the importance of good management in its effect upon students and [discussing] staff obligations and interlocking relationships" (p. 47). Activities pertaining to house management that are mentioned include:

1. Selection and purchase of equipment and supplies
2. Employment and direction of house employees

3. Upkeep of the premises, including repairs, renovation, and replacements

4. Keeping of records and accounts in connection with the physical plant and equipment and house personnel

The provision of food for college students is not conceded to be merely a matter of good business management and regard for nutritional content. The social aspects of eating habits are recognized, and attention is given to the attractiveness of meals, proper service, conversation, table assignments, size and arrangement of tables, the importance of appropriate ritual, etc. Attention is called to the obvious relations of the social program, house management, and food service. The lack of co-operation between those services is emphasized as one of the weaknesses most often found in dormitories.

The authors believe that the provision of buildings in which to house college students presents two separate problems: (1) meeting a temporary overcrowded condition which should soon reach its peak and (2) long-term planning of residence facilities which will be used indefinitely. Certain factors are stressed in relation to long-term planning. For example, the tendency to erect large halls in order to insure economy in building and operating costs is deplored, and it is pointed out that, where social and educational factors are given pri-

mary consideration, smaller living units are preferred. Noise is termed perhaps the most persistent problem in group living; for, in spite of present-day knowledge of acoustics, residence halls continue to be plagued by noise to an inexcusable extent. As a guide in planning a new hall, some general considerations are given under the headings of "Social Space," "Student Rooms," "Staff Living Quarters," and "Service Features." An appendix to the book offers suggestions and illustrations of practice.

One of the most pressing problems confronting college administrators today has to do with the housing of students and the correlative consideration of proper supervision of student residences. This book, even with its limitations of scope and lack of elaboration, which are conceded by its authors, can serve as an excellent handbook for those who, with little or no training for the work, may find themselves serving as supervisors of student residences. In fact, its timeliness for this purpose cannot be overemphasized. The well-experienced head resident will find in it little that is new. She will recognize that here again it has been felt necessary to concentrate largely on the physical plant instead of the educational program. As valuable as this book is, something vital is left to be done. Persons working in

the field must assume a scientific attitude and, through experimentation and evaluation, define areas in which the residence hall can be expected to make its unique contribution to the total educational program. Until this is done, institutions of higher learning will not be able systematically to develop the potentialities of residence halls.

FLORENCE M. THOMPSON
*Director of Woman's
Residence Hall*

INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
TERRE HAUTE, INDIANA



JOHN H. MCCOY, *A Calendar of College Activities for 1947-48: Day-by-day Suggestions for a Well-balanced Public Relations Program during the School Year.* Los Angeles: John H. McCoy (Occidental College), 1947. Pp. 29 (mimeographed). \$1.00.

A Calendar of College Activities for 1947-48 is an outgrowth of the deliberations of the Committee on Administrative Problems of the American Association of Junior Colleges. This committee reached the conclusion that one of the most vital and pressing problems confronting junior-college administrators is the development of a continuous and effective program of public relations. John McCoy's calendar was developed to provide a framework for a continuous program of informing the public.

The *Calendar* embodies day-by-day suggestions for public-relations activities during each month of the school year. Each suggestion is a concise and terse statement referring to activities or events involving all phases of public relations. Newspaper publicity is just one activity suggested for a well-balanced program. Musicals, dramatic productions, evening college instruction, faculty speeches, service-club contacts, assemblies, alumni meetings, college newspapers, college annuals, teas, parties, community guidance and counseling services, placement services, forums, athletics, radio programs, homecoming days, conferences, high-school visitations, exhibits, social events, parent-organization meetings, and commencement services are other activities mentioned in the *Calendar*. Historical dates and events are noted throughout the *Calendar* as "prompters" for appropriate activities.

College administrators will find McCoy's *Calendar* most valuable in providing an outline for a comprehensive program of public relations. It will serve as a framework upon which to build a year's program in advance and as a guide for continuous rather than spasmodic public contacts. The booklet is based on a philosophy that public relations are a never-ending process and that the public must be continuously kept aware of the work

being done by a college. The booklet also presents a valuable, up-to-the-minute bibliography of public-relations materials.

Although the *Calendar* fails to give specific instruction about putting into operation some of the suggested activities and events, it will

be an invaluable aid to the administrator or public-relations officer in formulating a yearly schedule for reaching the public.

BASIL H. PETERSON, *President*

ORANGE COAST JUNIOR COLLEGE
NEWPORT BEACH, CALIFORNIA

Selected References

S. V. MARTORANA

BADGER, HENRY G., and MAYER, HERBERT C. "Administration of College Teachers' Salaries," *Higher Education*, IV (October 1, 1947), 25-29.

Reports the results of an investigation of current institutional policies in the administration of faculty salaries. To gather the data for the study the Division of Higher Education of the United States Office of Education sent out, on January 24, 1947, a circular letter of inquiry to the 1,700 institutions of higher education listed in the *Educational Directory* published annually by the Office of Education. The inquiry asked for a copy of available statutes and regulations governing salaries and for specific information on such points as (1) arrangements for relating salaries to preparation or degrees, length of tenure, academic rank, research contributions, and the like; (2) minimum and maximum salaries for each rank, if such have been established; (3) number and time of salary payments during the year; (4) required deductions from salaries for retirement, life insurance, and other purposes; and (5) administrative agency or officers responsible for the determination of salaries and the amounts of salary promotions. Information concerning any deviation from established policy regarding salaries during the present emergency was also requested.

In general, the institutions from which

replies were received tended to be somewhat above the average for the nation in both quality and size. There was, nevertheless, a good representation of all types of institutions, and regional distribution of the 642 institutions which submitted replies approximates the entire group listed in the *Directory*.

Of the 642 that replied to the inquiry, relatively few had published formal regulations on the subject of staff salaries. Many college officers, especially in the larger institutions, maintained that the interests of the individual faculty member and institution can be best served when there are no established, rigid regulations concerning salaries. Almost half of the institutions replying either made no reference to the factors concerned in determining salaries or stated that no formal attempt was made to relate specific qualifications to salaries. A total of 493 institutions reported one or more factors which were considered in determination of salaries. A total of 1,673 factors was listed by the 493 institutions, or an average of 3.4 per institution reporting. The major generalization made in this section of the report is that, when salaries are based on recognized factors, these factors tend to be objective and quantitative in character. The factors most frequently considered were degrees held, length of service, years of preparation, and academic rank.

Of the 642 schools replying, 465 reported some form of salary scale, 133 had no salary schedule, and 44 did not specify any in their returns. In the last two groups, some institutions stated that each case was considered on its merits, and others frankly admitted that salary was a matter of individual bargaining. In 1946-47 the median ranges of faculty salary schedules in 465 institutions of higher education are given in tabular form. The range from the median of minimum salaries to the median of maximum salaries in all institutions reporting for the rank of instructor was from \$2,000 to \$2,800; for assistant professor, \$2,700 to \$3,500; for associate professor, \$3,200 to \$3,900; for professor, \$3,800 to \$4,800. For publicly controlled junior colleges the median ranges were: for instructor, from \$1,900 to \$2,400; assistant professor, from \$2,500 to \$3,000; associate professor, from \$3,000 to \$3,600; professor, from \$3,600 to \$4,200. For privately controlled junior colleges the median ranges were: for instructor, from \$2,300 to \$2,800; for associate professor, from \$2,600 to \$2,800; for professor, from \$2,800 to \$3,000. No median minimum and maximum salaries were reported for the rank of assistant professor in the last group of institutions listed. Special attention is called to the fact that the data relate only to salary schedules and not to salaries actually paid and that it is impossible to infer from the data what salaries are actually paid to faculty members in any rank or in any grouping of institutions.

In the regional classification, the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Pacific States had the highest salary schedules; the medians were lowest in the East South Central and West North Central States. "The medians for the junior colleges are considerably below the levels of all other categories of institutions. This is to be expected because the junior college does not require the type of scholars that the university or other degree-granting institution must have for the teaching of advanced and highly specialized courses."

Replies on methods of paying salaries reveal generally that payments cover the regular academic year, with extra remuneration for summer-school teaching and other out-

side work. Approximately half the institutions make salary payments only during the academic year. An almost equal number spread the payments throughout the calendar year. The latter practice seems to be growing in favor. Monthly salary payments is the practice in an overwhelming majority of institutions, the only other practice reported being the payment of salaries semi-monthly.

Data concerning officers and agencies which have to do with the determination of salaries reveal that, of the 642 institutions replying to the questionnaire, 140 indicated that the division or department head is concerned, 208 named the dean, and 450 indicated that the president has responsibility. The business officer is consulted at 48 institutions, and a faculty committee advises on this matter at 68 institutions. At 19 institutions, all of them city junior colleges, the city superintendent determines salaries. The pertinent fact here is that in 10 per cent of the cases a committee of the faculty acts on the subject of salaries. No evidence was gathered, however, to indicate the nature of the action or to show whether this practice is growing or declining.

FINE, BENJAMIN. "Education in Review: University of Virginia Seeks To Meet Postwar Problem with Two-Year College Plan," *New York Times*, XCVII (October 5, 1947), Section IV, p. 9.

Summarizes the expansion program proposed by President C. W. Darden of the University of Virginia to meet the large postwar demands placed on it. A student body of double the normal enrolment has brought a host of academic problems. In his inaugural speech President Darden discussed his plans for the future and expressed faith in the role that American colleges and universities can play in solving world problems. He believes that higher education in this country has reached a new plateau and will not retreat from it after the influx of veterans ends.

Darden proposed that two-year colleges be established throughout the state to meet the emergency demands of the vast num-

bers of students on the University campus. "These institutions, junior colleges in effect, would furnish a 'screening' process whereby the students could discover whether they wanted to continue." At the end of two years' attendance at these junior colleges, those students who had proved themselves competent would transfer and continue their academic careers at the University.

New institutions would not need to be established. Existing colleges and universities throughout the state would be utilized as much as possible, or the state university might establish centers where the first two years of college work can be offered. "These years always show the greatest mortality in enrolment, which rises as high as 40 per cent. By the beginning of the third year, those students who continue their studies are more likely to complete their work."

Darden is quoted as stressing: "The two-year college is the only solution to our problem. There is no way in the world that we can admit all the students of the state who may want to enter. A series of these junior colleges throughout the state will prove beneficial to the students as well as to the University. In time we may even arrive at the place where we will farm out all of our students for the first two years."

In addition to extension of junior colleges, Darden believes that the state university must take the lead in setting up a state-wide system of adult education. At present more than 75 per cent of the high-school graduates do not go to college. "It is this large group of men and women, forming the majority of voters in every community, which must be considered in any educational program." The university's proposed adult-education program will spread into every section of the state and provide leadership in many ways. "Community classes may be organized, as well as extension centers in adult education." The proposal is to introduce an adult-education program similar to that which has proved so successful in Scandinavian countries. It was found that, if they have the necessary motivation, adults learn much more rapidly than young students. Education on the adult level is essential today

because of the implications of the atomic age. "Colleges and universities everywhere must take an active and aggressive leadership in working for world peace and understanding." In conclusion, it is suggested that, in the future, American colleges and universities will be called on to provide leadership which will transcend that required on their own campuses.

JARVIE, L. L. "Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences," *Higher Education*, IV (September 1, 1947), 3-4.

Explains the purposes, philosophy, and nature of the new institutes of applied arts and sciences which have been authorized in New York State by a recent act of the legislature. Located in Binghamton, Buffalo, Utica, White Plains, and New York City, these two-year institutions serve to broaden educational opportunities for young men and women interested in post-high-school education related to specific technical work within various industries. The offerings of the technical institutes prepare students for a variety of technical positions in the economy of New York State.

"Inherent in the legislation and in the research leading to the provision for a five-year experiment is a mandate to view this venture as a pioneer undertaking in American education. . . . What is sought is a unique unit within an integrated pattern of education which derives direction from the needs of youth and industry."

The basic motivation for instruction is derived from the concept of preparing individuals for technical positions in all types of industry. The Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences are also greatly interested, however, in the over-all preparation of students for a total life. "Technical institutes simply recognize that an extremely important aspect of living an effective life is that of earning a livelihood. . . . Thus it may be said that the purpose of the institutes is to produce a person who achieves a foundation upon which to expand a way of life in which economic effectiveness plays an important role."

The philosophy which underlies these institutes was developed at a time when post-secondary education was at the crossroads. It

is explained that since the early part of the century the junior-college movement has been gathering momentum along two channels; first, the paralleling of the first two years of liberal arts college offerings; second, under the more immediate pressure of a society largely characterized by technological change, the development of thirteenth- and fourteenth-year curriculums leading directly to occupational competence and employment in technical positions. The author holds that the underlying philosophy of the technical institutes in New York State uses a more comprehensive approach for construction of a satisfactory pattern for this stage of post-secondary education. This pattern recognizes the interrelationship of experiences in growth and development of individuals. "Curriculums are not designed in terms of general education and technical education. Courses are developed upon the basis of a single end, and experiences within one course are integrated with those of all other courses."

Industries are becoming increasingly aware of a definable technician grade of employment, lying between engineering or managerial functions and skilled trades. There are 350,000 such positions in New York State; for these positions, approximately 17,600 replacements are needed annually. The new technical institutes offer curriculums in such fields as mechanical technology, electrical technology, industrial chemistry, food administration, retail business management, optical technology, textile technology, dental hygiene, and dental technology.

"The experimental approach affords a great opportunity for the development of a broad adult program geared to the needs of communities being served by the institutes. . . . Inherent in the institute concept is service to the community in all phases of life. The institutes in a sense should become 'community colleges,' from which would stem much of the stimulus for the development of adult thought and action."

Initially, operations for all the institutes must be carried on largely in quarters not designed for educational activities. Directors and faculty members will have to adjust to

the limitations and restrictions of space available without failing to adjust and develop instructional materials best suited to carry out the basic purposes of the institutes. "The growth and adaptation of the institute program to changing needs are dependent on continuing research at the local and state levels and will require administrative strategy sensitive to the constantly changing needs of the individuals and industries served."

Public Education in Idaho. A Report of the Idaho Education Survey Commission. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1947. Pp. viii + 517.

Five chapters of this volume deal with higher education in the state of Idaho and contain recommendations pertaining to the junior colleges in that state. These chapters discuss the present pattern of higher education in Idaho, the control of higher education, institutional units needed for higher education, plant needs for higher education, and the situation within each higher institution.

The geography of Idaho makes it difficult to have an adequate distribution of the facilities for higher education. The young people in the state are much more dependent on the provisions of the publicly controlled institutions of higher education, if they wish to attend within their home state, than are most young people throughout the United States. There are in the state only two private degree-granting colleges and one private junior college.

"In the judgment of the survey staff, the most fruitful opportunity for further development of higher education in Idaho is through the extension of the junior-college system. The state is fortunate in having enacted a junior-college law a few years ago. This statute affords excellent opportunities for the extension of the public efforts in higher education."

The present arrangement for junior colleges, which allows for separate local districts created for the administration of junior colleges, is criticized. "The best arrangement

would be to make the junior college a recognized part of the local public-school system, administered through the same organization as the other local schools." The junior-college district should be coterminous with the high-school district and administered under the same local board. "The superintendent in general charge of the local school system should have under his immediate direction the dean who is in charge of the junior college. The state should grant financial assistance for junior-college purposes to the local districts as a part of a minimum educational program wherever such institutions are justified. The state should exercise some control in determining what local districts should be permitted to establish junior colleges."

Another criticism of the present junior-college law is the fact that the only type of organization contemplated is one providing a two-year program beyond high-school graduation. "The leading authorities on the junior college in the United States are now pointing out the desirability of the four-year junior college, which offers a program of instruction beginning with the eleventh grade and running through the fourteenth. . . . The junior-college law should be amended to permit the establishment of the four-year type of institution."

The present arrangement whereby there is little central supervision of junior colleges by the state is also criticized. It is pointed out that the junior colleges have even less control from the state than the local high schools, for there is no requirement for certification of junior-college teachers and no suggestions for curriculums or courses of study from state sources. Supervisory relationships should be maintained from the State Department of Education over the junior-college programs, in order to assure their quality.

The criteria for permitting the establishment of a public junior college should have careful consideration. In each case there should be a careful survey based on numbers of high-school graduates in the area and the possible enrolment of the junior college.

After consideration of the plant facilities in the various institutions, it is recommended: (1) "The North Idaho Junior Col-

lege, before completing plans for building on its new campus, should make an attempt in co-operation with the local public schools to organize a four-year program of instruction, covering Grades XI through XIV, and the new plant facilities should be developed so as to make possible the effective housing of such a junior-college organization." (2) "Consideration should be given to the development of the Boise Junior College as a four-year institution, with a program of instruction covering Grades XI through XIV."

With respect to the offerings and facilities of junior colleges, the Survey Commission makes recommendations pertinent to terminal curriculums and to the improvement of library facilities. With respect to terminal programs, it is noted that the terminal curriculums offered at the junior-college level should be reviewed by the faculties of the institutions in which such programs are maintained, with the idea of introducing adequate general education for students preparing for specialized vocations.

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